

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 030 965

EA 002 379

The Elementary School Principalship in 1968. A Research Study.

Department of Elementary School Principles, Washington, D.C.

Pub Date 68

Note-165p.

Available from-Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, Washington, D.C. 20036 (#181-05556 cloth \$6.50; #181-05554 paperback \$5.00).

EDRS Price MF-\$0.75 HC Not Available from EDRS.

Descriptors-Administrator Background, Administrator Characteristics, Administrator Qualifications, Administrator Role, Educational Innovation, *Elementary Schools, *Principals, Program Evaluation, Salaries, School Community Relationship, School Organization, School Supervision, *School Surveys, Staff Utilization, Working Hours

This report summarizes the results of a 1967 survey designed to obtain a better understanding of the characteristics, duties, and opinions of the nation's elementary school principals. A questionnaire mailed to a national sample of 2,551 elementary school principals elicited a 91.7% response rate. These responses are described in 11 chapters containing 104 tables which provide the following types of information about the elementary school principal: (1) Personal and professional characteristics, (2) experience and preparation, (3) working conditions, (4) salary rates, (5) administrative responsibilities, (6) organizational responsibilities, (7) resource utilization, (8) supervisory responsibilities, (9) relationship with the community, (10) use and evaluation of organizational and instructional innovations, and (11) use and evaluation of selected special school programs. In the final chapter, the general results of the survey are compared with the results of a similar survey of the nation's principals conducted in 1958, and several problem areas which may affect the future role of the elementary school principal are suggested. (JH)

ED030965

PROCESS WITH MICROFICHE AND
PUBLISHER'S PRICES. MICRO-
FICHE REPRDUCTION ONLY.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP IN 1968
THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP IN 1968
THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP IN 1968

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP IN 1968

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP IN 1968
THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP IN 1968
THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP IN 1968
THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP IN 1968
THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP IN 1968
THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP IN 1968
THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP IN 1968
THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP IN 1968



• • • A RESEARCH STUDY

Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE
PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS
STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION
POSITION OR POLICY.

EA 002 379

Permission to reproduce this copyrighted work has been granted to the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) and to the organization operating under contract with the Office to Education to reproduce documents included in the ERIC system by means of microfiche only, but this right is not conferred to any users of the microfiche received from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service. Further reproduction of any part requires permission of the copyright owner.

Copyright © 1968,
DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS,
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
All rights reserved.

No part of this book may be reproduced in any form
without written permission from the publisher,
except by a reviewer who wishes to quote brief passages.

NEA stock number: Paper 181-05554
Cloth 181-05556
Library of Congress catalog card number: 68-30677

Single copies of paperback, \$5.00; cloth, \$6.50;
2-9 copies, 10% discount; 10 or more copies, 20% discount.

Published by the Department of Elementary School Principals,
National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 20036

PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

CONTENTS

Foreword	4
What's Past Is Prologue	5
Chapter I.	
Characteristics of Principals	9
Chapter II.	
Experience and Preparation	19
Chapter III.	
Working Conditions—Terms, Hours of Work, and Distribution of Time	38
Chapter IV.	
The Principal and Administration	53
Chapter V.	
Organizational Characteristics of Elementary Schools	62
Chapter VI.	
School Resources Available to the Principal	69
Chapter VII.	
The Principal and Supervision	78
Chapter VIII.	
School and Community	90
Chapter IX.	
Use and Evaluation of Certain Practices	101
Chapter X.	
How Principals Rate Special School Programs	116
Chapter XI.	
The Financial Status of Principals	128
Chapter XII.	
What to Come, In Yours and My Discharge	139
Appendix	156

FOREWORD

THIS REPORT—the 1968 DESP survey of the elementary school principalship—is the fourth of its kind. Similar reports were made in 1928, 1948, and 1958. All reflect the growing status, improving preparation, and promising opportunities of those who now guide the destinies of nearly 30 million children. Despite the ups and downs of American life and the pressure of many current problems in education—the principalship continues to be a center of stability, common sense, and constructive progress. It is a lighthouse built on a rock.

Each of these surveys has been a tribute to the thousands of principals who supplied answers to questionnaires. Without their help none of these studies would have been possible.

All four surveys have been cooperative efforts of the NEA Research Division and the Department of Elementary School Principals. The Division has supplied the technical assistance required to prepare and tabulate the questionnaires and to advise in the interpretation of the results. The Department has handled the editorial work and assumed the expense of printing the questionnaire, circulating the blanks, and publishing the final report. The Department's staff had final responsibility for planning, writing, and editing the present volume.

The decision of the Executive Committee to continue the series of surveys was made on the recommendation of the Department's executive staff. Many members of the DESP staff have contributed ideas, time, effort, and always—enthusiastic support to the 1968 survey. Team play is second nature with them.

Many members of the NEA Research Division deserve credit for their contributions. General approval of the Division's participation was given by Hazel Davis and Glen E. Robinson each of whom, during the period of planning, served as Director of the NEA Research Division. The technical aspects of designing a scientific sample of elementary school principals and of preparing the tabulations are the products of the skilled work of Simeon P. Taylor, assistant director and chief of statistics, and Richard E. Scott, associate chief of statistics. Careful checking of the manuscript was made by Gaye M. Baber, statistical assistant.

General supervision of the project and chief author and editor of the report was Frank W. Hubbard, retired Assistant Executive Secretary for Information Services, NEA, who has served in recent years as a DESP consultant. Dr. Hubbard was director of the 1928 and 1948 surveys and advisor on the 1958 survey. The interpretation of the statistical data was his responsibility, not that of the NEA Research Division.

WHAT'S PAST IS PROLOGUE . . .

IT WAS an era of rapid scientific progress, it was an era of plodding toward better socio-governmental goals; it was an epoch of vast expenditures for foreign aid and wars, it was an epoch of financial restrictions upon domestic programs for education, health, and welfare; it was a time of strong political leadership, it was a time of unprincipled competition among would-be leaders; it was an age of rapid communication, it was an age of too little reliable information.

In similar words Charles Dickens might have described the years of 1967 and 1968 in the United States. The paragraph paraphrases the opening lines of *A Tale of Two Cities* in which Dickens sets the tone of his novel of the French Revolution.* The literary honors with respect to the quality of writing must be awarded to Dickens.

Edgar B. Wesley wrote a similar paragraph in his history of the National Education Association.† He was describing the year 1857 when the National Teachers Association was organized (eventually to become the National Education Association).

One good thing about these similar paragraphs is that they are both optimistic and pessimistic in every sentence. From reading such paragraphs, composed over a period of at least one hundred years, one may conclude that each year is pretty much what those living at the time want to make it—in their thoughts and in their deeds. Some who read this 1968 survey will despair about the elementary school principalship; others will say “damn the torpedoes, full speed ahead.” But more of this in the final chapter.

Development of the principalship

The position of classroom teacher is undoubtedly the one with the longest historical record in American public education. The second longest history belongs to the elementary school principalship. Early in the nineteenth century the larger cities in New England and along the eastern seaboard began designating one of the teachers of the emerging multiple-teacher schools as the “head teacher.” As the population grew and as cities sprouted across the nation, the term “principal teacher” and “teaching principal” came into use. Eventually, many city school systems adopted the terms “principal” or “building principal.” During the past two decades principals often have been given the title “supervising prin-

* Dickens, Charles. *A Tale of Two Cities*. New York: Dodd, Mead & Company, 1942. p. 3.

† Wesley, Edgar B. *NEA: The First Hundred Years; the Building of the Teaching Profession*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957. p. 3.

principal" because of the size of their schools or to emphasize the supervisory aspects of their work.

Although these several terms for the principalship have been attached to definite dates, these time points primarily designate the period when a given title came into common usage. Actually, with the continued growth of our population, the organization of new urban places and school systems, and the development of new school attendance districts, the several terms used from year to year to designate the head of individual schools have varied even within a given community.

The purposes of the 1968 survey were to obtain some measure of the various titles (and types) of principals, to describe their professional and personal characteristics, to explore their duties and functions, and to obtain their opinions with regard to certain school practices. We have taken this backward glance because our past, to considerable degree, determines our future. Since we now are tomorrow's past, more knowledge of the present may cast a glimmer of light on the road ahead.

Scope and limitation of the 1968 survey

The usual estimate is that there are between 45,000 and 50,000 persons who hold positions where, to a considerable degree, they exercise the basic functions of the elementary school principalship. To send an inquiry form to each of these persons, in fact to identify the addresses even of a majority, would have been an insurmountable task. The answer was to make a scientific sample study. The NEA Research Division, after many years of experimentation with drawing samples from among the professional staffs in public elementary and secondary education, agreed to handle the technical details. From school systems the Division obtained lists of persons who were "heads of elementary schools." On the basis of random selection and other criteria an adjusted, scientific sample of 2,551 names was developed (see Appendix). An eight-page questionnaire, consisting of 72 questions, was mailed to the sample in February 1967. Follow-up procedures brought the percent of response up to 91.7 percent of the adjusted sample. During the spring months of 1967 machine cards were punched on 2,318 replies. The machine tabulations were completed by August and the preparation of the text of the present report was begun in September 1967.

The data supplied by respondents was tabulated question by question for the total sample, for teaching principals, and for supervising principals. The term "teaching principal" has been used to include those who reported their titles as head teacher; the term "supervising principal" includes those who reported their titles as building principal and principal. The replies of supervising principals were also tabulated by the following categories:

School system enrollment (25,000 or more pupils; 3,000 to 24,999; and 300 to 2,999).

Years of experience as a principal (less than 5 years; 5-14 years; and 15 or more years).

Sex (men and women).

Preparation (Bachelor's degree or less and Master's degree or higher).
Geographic regions (Northeast; Southeast; Middle; and West).‡

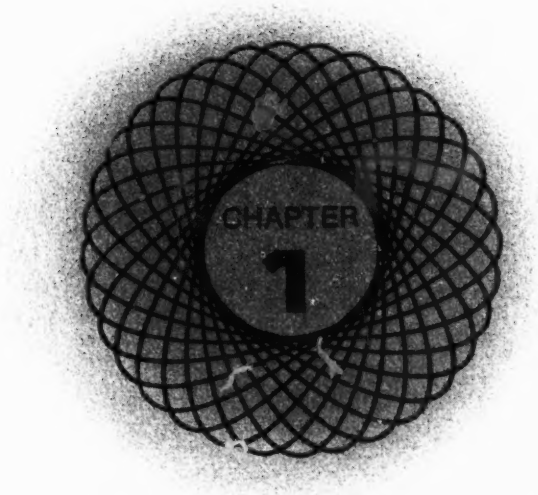
The NEA Research Division produced approximately 300 pages (11" x 13") of machine printed tabular material. The present report offers the highlights of these extensive tabulations. Approximately 100 small tables have been used in the text. Where other significant trends or differences existed in the large tables, a general reference has been made to these facts in the text.

Most of the data has been presented in percents. Usually, the text makes no reference to percentage differences unless they are significant. The tables, however, do contain a few differences in percent which may be indicative but are not statistically significant. The term "significant" means that the observed difference would occur again in 90 out of 100 similar studies. The reader should consult the section of the Appendix which explains estimates of sampling variation.

Because of the earlier surveys, reported in 1928, 1948, and 1958, a few long-time trends have been identified. Most of these have been interpreted conservatively because of differences in the wording of questions in the questionnaires used from year to year. Differences in age, sex, and school enrollment represent factual material which are reasonably solid in making comparisons among the four surveys. In other questions, involving judgments, the differences in wording in the questions may be the reason for the differences in replies over the 40-year period. An effort has been made in the text not to encourage any possible misinterpretations.

On the whole the present report is a summary of the replies of 2,318 elementary school principals with relatively few interpretations and conclusions. Chapter XII deviates from this basic character since it points to the future. None of the statements, however, in this report are declarations of recommended standards or official policies of the Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA.

‡ *Northeast*: Connecticut, Delaware, District of Columbia, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont. *Southeast*: Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and West Virginia. *Middle*: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, and Wisconsin. *West*: Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Hawaii, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Oregon, Texas, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming.



CHARACTERISTICS OF PRINCIPALS

IN THE FUTURE the quality of elementary education will be linked increasingly to the professional preparation, social vision, and consistent courage of elementary school principals. Motivated by good will and an understanding of the value of cooperative effort he will seek to release within the individual school the potential contributions of classroom teachers, the staff of the central administration, the technical resource personnel, the parents, and the general community leadership. Each of these has his own field of expertise; working together they can assure to all children increasingly better educational opportunities. The principal's role is a strategic one of coordinating these resources as they serve the school and, ultimately, American society as a whole.

Since the future depends so much upon the elementary school principal, this 1968 report focuses attention first upon the personal and professional characteristics of principals in service in 1966-67. From the

basic facts revealed principals may, individually and through their professional groups, set in motion the plans and programs to lift even higher the level of their professional leadership.

What is your official title?

The concern of the 1968 survey is with a representative sample of persons who usually are in charge of individual schools. Table 1 shows that in the total sample response of 2,318 almost 4 percent are known as "head teacher"; close to 15 percent, as "teaching principal"; 69 percent, as "principal"; and approximately 13 percent, as "supervising principal."

The title "supervising principal" is more likely to occur in the smallest school systems (300-2,999 pupils) than it is in the larger systems. Approximately 90 percent of the respondents in the largest systems (25,000 or more pupils) bear the title of "principal" as compared with 79 percent in the smallest systems.

Table 1. Official Titles of Participants in the Survey

Title	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals
Head teacher.....	3.8%	20.6%	.0%
Teaching principal.....	14.6	79.4	.0
Principal.....	69.0	.0	84.6
Supervising principals.....	12.6	.0	15.4
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Number.....	2,318	427	1,891

"Supervising principal" is the title more characteristic of the Northeast and Southeast than it is of the Middle geographic section or the West. Close to 23 in 100 of those with the title supervising principal have 15 or more years experience as a principal as compared with 10 in 100 of those with 5 or fewer years as principals. Tabulations by sex and level of college preparation showed no significant differences among the supervising principals.

What is your age?

The median age of the total sample of elementary school principals was 46 years. Teaching principals showed a median of 49 years; supervising principals, 45 years.

About 1 percent (0.6 percent) of the total group was under 25 years of age; 2.2 per-

cent were 65 and over. The youngest individual was 21 and the oldest was 70 years of age.

Supervising principals tend to be older in the larger school systems (median 49 years in communities with 25,000 or more pupils; median 45 years in communities with 3,000-24,999 pupils; and median 43 years in communities with fewer than 3,000 pupils).

Nearly 71 percent of the men supervising principals (Table 2) are under 50 years of age; about 77 percent of the women principals are 50 years or older. Close to 90 percent of those with less than 5 years experience as a principal are under 50 years of age; nearly 82 percent of those with 15 or more years of experience as principals are 50 years or older. Sixty-two

Table 2. Age of Supervising Principals by Sex, Experience, and Preparation

Age Group	Men	Women	Years as principal			Highest degree held	
			Less than 5 years	5-14 years	15 or more years	A.B. or lower	M.A. or higher
Less than 35 years.....	16.3%	2.1%	37.0%	8.1%	.0%	17.6%	12.7%
35-49 years.....	54.6	21.2	52.7	62.0	18.3	32.3	49.1
50-64 years.....	27.7	73.0	10.2	29.3	76.2	45.5	36.5
65 or older.....	1.5	3.5	.2	.6	5.5	4.5	1.6
Total.....	100.1%	99.8%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	99.9%	99.9%
Median.....	43	56	37	44	57	49	45
Number.....	1,463	401	475	866	509	198	1,666

Table 3. Sex of Principals by Type and by Size of School System

Sex	Total Sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals			
			All	School system enrollment		
				25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
Male.....	75.2%	64.2%	77.6%	63.4%	80.9%	85.0%
Female.....	24.8	35.8	22.4	36.6	19.1	15.0
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Number.....	2,318	427	1,891	475	883	533

percent of the supervising principals with the M.A. or higher degrees are *under* 50 years of age; 50 percent of those with the A.B. or lower preparation are over 50 years of age.

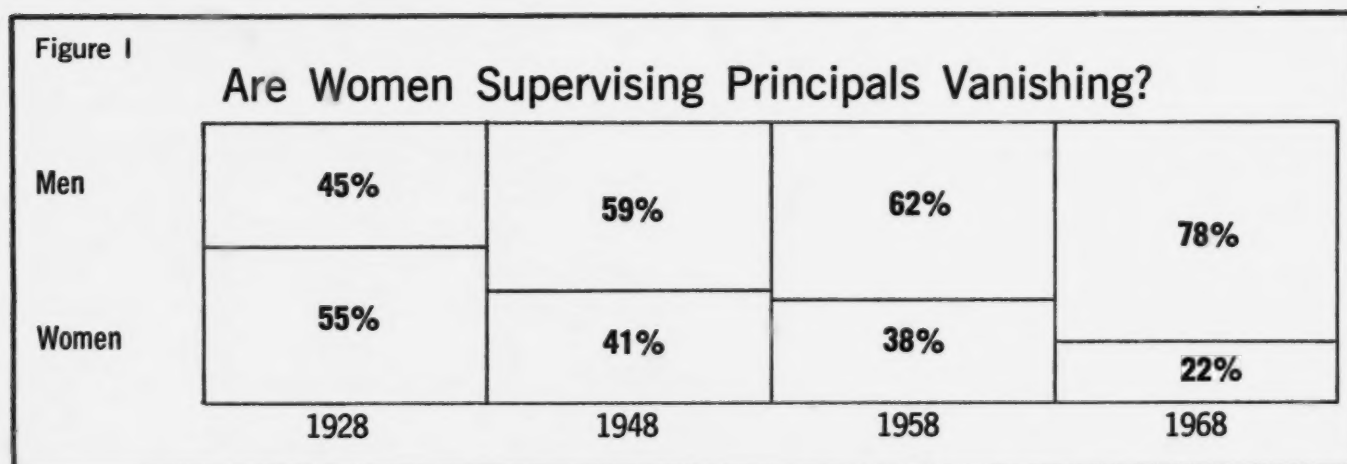
What is your sex?

Three in 4 of all principals replying were men (Table 3). Among teaching principals, 2 in 3 were men; among supervising principals almost 8 in 10 were men.

In the earlier DESP surveys the proportion of women supervising principals was higher. In 1928: 55 percent, women; 45 percent, men. In 1948: 41 percent, women; 59 percent, men. In 1958: 38 percent, women; 62 percent, men.

The 1958 yearbook raised the question: "If individual competency is to be the

main qualification for the supervising principalship, it is difficult to understand why the proportion of men continues to increase. Why would not the division be closer to half and half?" Those who raised the question did not supply an answer. Undoubtedly the answer does not lie exclusively in the matter of competency. Steadily over several decades the number of men entering teaching at the elementary level has been increasing. For years both the salaries and the educational status of principals has risen markedly thereby making the principalship more and more attractive to men. When asked in the present survey for the "primary" reason for becoming a principal (Table 7) the men supervising principals usually answered "considered the principalship



especially important" (1 in 3), or "preferred administration and supervision to classroom work" (1 in 4), or "needed a larger income" (1 in 5). More than half of the women supervising principals, on the other hand, became principals because they were "encouraged by the superintendent's office." These facts suggest that men are more likely than women to have strong, personal drives to seek positions as principals which, combined with other factors, has steadily increased the proportion of men in the principalship.

What is your marital status?

Of the total group replying, 8 in 10 are married. About 12 percent were single; 5 percent were widowed, divorced, or separated (Table 4).

Apparently single persons are most likely to be appointed as supervising principals in the larger school systems and in the states of the Northeast. Unlike Horace Greeley's recommendation, perhaps the single person should think twice about going west for opportunities in the principalship.

Marital status did not appear to be significantly related to highest college degree held or to years of experience as a principal. The complete tabulations of teaching principals indicate that they are more likely to be single than are supervising

principals (but the differences in percents were not large nor statistically significant).

What position did you hold just prior to your first principalship?

Of the total sample 6 in 10 had been elementary school classroom teachers just prior to becoming principals (Table 5). Among teaching principals close to 76 percent had been classroom teachers in elementary schools. Ten percent of the total group had been assistant principals in elementary schools; 15 percent had been classroom teachers in secondary schools.

In the 1958 DESP survey 60 percent of the entire group of principals reporting came out of the elementary school classroom; 22 percent from secondary school classrooms; 6 percent had been assistant principals; 4 percent had been supervisors; and the remaining 8 percent from other types of positions. Comparing these percents with Table 5 suggests a decline in the proportion of elementary school principals emerging from secondary school classrooms and an increase in the proportion of those who served as assistant elementary school principals before becoming principals.

Among the sample as a whole about 1 in 10 had been an elementary school assistant principal prior to his first principalship. In the Northeast states and in

Table 4. Marital Status of Supervising Principals by System Enrollment and by Geographic Regions

Status	All	School system enrollment			Geographic regions			
		25,000 or more	3,000 - 24,999	300 - 2,999	NE	SE	Middle	West
Single	12.2%	16.2%	12.2%	8.5%	21.6%	10.0%	12.7%	5.7%
Married	83.1	77.3	83.7	87.4	74.0	85.8	82.7	88.8
Widowed, etc.	4.7	6.5	4.1	4.1	4.4	4.3	4.5	5.5
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	99.9%	100.0%
Number	1,889	475	883	531	407	400	573	509

Table 5. Position Held Just Prior to First Elementary School Principalship

Position	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising Principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
Elementary cl. teach.	60.8%	75.9%	57.4%	54.1%	69.2%	52.3%	50.4%	65.7%	57.7%
Secondary cl. teach.	15.3	14.2	15.6	19.0	3.8	8.4	30.6	14.3	11.0
Elementary asst. prin.	10.4	1.0	12.4	11.2	16.9	22.0	4.1	7.9	16.5
Secondary asst. prin.	2.6	1.4	2.8	3.5	.5	3.5	4.1	1.6	2.8
Central office specialist.....	3.7	.2	4.5	4.0	6.0	6.2	3.3	4.2	4.3
College prof.	1.0	.5	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.7	1.0	.9	.8
Graduate student.....	1.4	2.4	1.2	1.4	.7	.2	1.3	1.2	2.0
Other.....	4.8	4.3	4.9	5.9	1.7	5.7	5.3	4.2	4.9
Total.....	100.0%	99.9%	99.9%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%
Number.....	2,295	415	1,880	1,461	419	405	395	572	508

the West nearly 2 in 10 of the supervising principals had this prior experience. In the Southeast states more than 30 percent entered the supervising principalship from positions as classroom teachers in secondary schools. This percent is significantly higher than in the other regions. A secondary school background is more likely to be true of men supervising principals than of women (Table 5).

How old were you when you were first appointed to the principalship?

For the entire sample the median age of first appointment as a principal was 33 years. The median was the same both for teaching principals and for supervising principals. The lowest age of first appointment for an individual in the entire group was 17 years; for teaching principals, 19 years; and for supervising principals, 17 years. One individual was appointed at 67 years of age (a teaching principal); the

oldest age of first appointment among supervising principals was 63 years of age.

Among men supervising principals 67 in 100 were first appointed when they were less than 35 years of age; among women supervising principals 61 in 100 were first appointed when they were between 35 and 49 years of age. Those reporting the longest experience as principals apparently entered the principalship at an earlier age than the most recent appointees with less than 15 years of experience. Among the more experienced principals (those with 15 or more years as principals) 66 in 100 began at less than 35 years of age; among those with less than 5 years experience 53 in 100 began before they were 35. The medians support the implication that, in recent years, the age of first appointment has risen: 34 years for those with less than 5 years as principal; 33 for those with 5 to 14 years; and 30 years for those with 15 or more years (Table 6).

Table 6. Age at Time of First Appointment as an Elementary School Principal

Age group	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals			
			All	Experience as principal		
				Less than 5 years	5-14 years as principal	15 or more years
Less than 35.....	57.1%	55.1%	57.5%	52.7%	55.4%	66.0%
35-49 years.....	36.6	31.2	37.8	40.6	38.6	33.0
50-64 years.....	6.3	13.4	4.7	6.7	6.0	1.0
65 and over.....	.0	.3	.0	.0	.0	.0
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Median.....	33	33	33	34	33	30
Number.....	2,224	397	1,827	467	849	500

What was your primary reason for becoming a principal?

Of the total sample approximately 61 percent became principals either because they considered the principalship especially important or because the superintendent's office encouraged them to do so (Table 7). More than half of the teaching principals (54.6 percent) cited the encouragement of the superintendent's office as

their primary reason. Similarly among the women supervising principals, the influence of the superintendent's office was the outstanding factor (56.4 percent).

Men supervising principals, in contrast with the women supervising principals, more frequently gave their primary motive as "preferred administration and supervision to classroom teaching" and "needed a larger income." Principals with less than

Table 7. Primary Reason for Becoming a Principal

Reason	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	Experience as principal		
						Less than 5 years	5-14 years	15 or more years
Preferred administration and supervision.....	19.5%	13.2%	20.9%	24.8%	7.6%	23.9%	20.2%	19.7%
Needed a larger income.....	17.1	10.5	18.5	22.6	4.3	18.8	20.6	14.9
Considered principalship especially important.....	30.7	19.3	33.2	34.9	27.1	40.0	32.9	27.6
Encouraged by the superintendent's office.....	30.7	54.6	25.5	16.5	56.4	15.0	24.3	36.5
Other.....	2.0	2.4	1.9	1.2	4.5	2.3	2.1	1.4
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	99.9%	100.0%	100.1%	100.1%
Number.....	2,283	410	1,873	1,453	420	473	870	518

Table 8. Willingness to Become a Principal if Starting Again

Answer	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
Certainly would.....	52.9%	38.0%	56.2%	56.7%	54.6%	57.6%	57.8%	52.4%
Probably would.....	27.1	30.4	26.3	26.7	24.9	26.7	25.6	27.3
Chances about even for and against.....	13.3	18.4	12.1	11.4	14.5	10.4	12.1	13.7
Probably not.....	5.6	10.5	4.5	4.3	5.0	4.0	3.9	5.8
Certainly not.....	1.2	2.6	.8	.8	1.0	1.3	.7	.8
Total.....	100.1%	99.9%	99.9%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%
Number.....	2,301	418	1,883	1,462	421	472	879	532

5 years experience as a principal, in contrast with those with 15 or more years in the principalship, cited more frequently that they "considered the principalship as especially important." This finding suggests a youthful enthusiasm among the younger principals.

Supervising principals with the A.B. or less preparation most frequently cited the influence of the superintendent's office as the primary reason for entering the principalship (44.2 percent); those with the M.A. or higher preparation most frequently cited "considered the principalship especially important" (34.1 percent). Classification of the data by size of school system and by regions showed slight but not significant differences.

Suppose you were starting all over again, would you become an elementary school principal?

This type of question is often used in surveys to test the "morale" of a group (Table 8). Among the total sample of principals 8 in 10 reported that they "certainly would" or "probably would" become principals again. In NEA Research Division studies comparable percents among all classroom teachers over a period of years

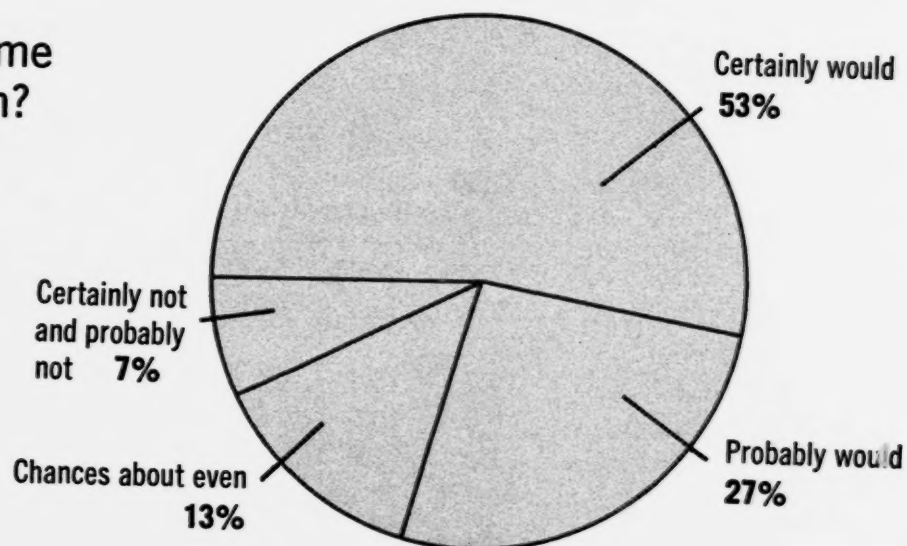
have been reported: 1944, 64.2 percent; 1956, 73.3 percent; 1961, 76.8 percent; and 1966, 78.0 percent as willing to enter teaching again.* (See Appendix for citations.)

Some measure of "uncertainty" with regard to being a principal may be obtained by adding together the "chances about even for and against," and the "probably not," and the "certainly not" answers. Almost 32 percent of the teaching principals fall into this "uncertain" category. Women supervising principals are more uncertain than the men; principals in smaller communities are more uncertain than those in the larger school systems. Despite unfavorable social and economic conditions in many communities in recent years the figures of this survey do not support any notion that the morale of principals in the larger communities is significantly lower than in other communities. This conclusion is supported by the percents stating that they "certainly would" become principals, if they were starting all over again.

Differences in percent, based upon years of experience as a principal, were not significant. Regional differences were slight. Those with the M.A. or higher degrees showed a stronger inclination to become

Figure II

**Would You Become
A Principal Again?**
(Total sample
in 1968)



principals again, if they were starting over again, than those with less preparation.

Do you consider the elementary school principalship as your final occupational goal?

Almost 56 percent of the total sample look upon the elementary school principalship as their final occupational goal (Table 9). Among teaching principals 49.9 percent agreed; among supervising principals 56.7 percent agreed.

Men supervising principals were about evenly divided—only 50.2 percent believ-

ing that the principalship was their final goal. Women supervising principals were more certain—79.2 percent had no strong desire to serve in any other capacity.

Those who did not consider the principalship their final occupational goal were given the opportunity to indicate what specific positions they hoped to attain. About half of the sample gave specific indication of the general direction of their future plans (Table 10).

Of those with specific goals in the total sample 1 in 5 would like to be director of elementary education; 1 in 5 eventually

Table 9. The Principalship as the Final Occupational Goal

Answer	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	Experience as principal		
						Less than 5 years	5-14 years	15 or more years
Final goal.....	55.5%	49.9%	56.7%	50.2%	79.2%	34.7%	53.4%	82.6%
Not final.....	44.5	50.1	43.3	49.8	20.8	65.3	46.6	17.4
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Number.....	2,292	419	1,873	1,455	418	472	873	518

Table 10. Position Most Desired by Those Who Believe the Principalship Is Not Their Final Occupational Goal

Position	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
Classroom teacher (Elem.).....	7.8%	26.3%	3.0%	1.7%	13.8%	4.0%	3.2%	3.0%	2.0%
Classroom teacher (Sec.).....	2.1	3.9	1.6	1.7	1.1	.0	1.9	2.6	1.5
College teacher.....	16.0	16.1	16.0	15.8	17.2	14.2	18.4	16.1	15.6
Secondary prin.	5.6	5.9	5.5	5.9	2.3	4.5	13.3	3.4	3.0
Supervisor.....	18.2	17.1	18.5	17.7	25.3	14.2	24.1	17.6	19.1
Director elem. ed.	21.9	12.7	24.3	24.1	25.3	30.7	13.9	26.6	23.6
Superintendent.....	21.1	7.8	24.5	27.2	2.3	27.3	19.0	25.5	25.1
Outside of ed. field....	4.7	6.8	4.1	3.6	8.0	4.0	1.9	4.1	6.0
Other.....	2.7	3.4	2.5	2.2	4.6	1.1	4.4	1.1	4.0
Total.....	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	99.9%	99.9%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%	99.9%
Number reporting.....	1,005	205	800	713	87	176	158	267	199

want to be a superintendent of schools. About 1 in 6 would like to be a supervisor in the central office of the school system or a college teacher. Relatively few had any ambitions with regard to positions in secondary education—either as a classroom teacher or as an administrator. Relatively few wanted to find their ultimate positions outside of education.

Men and women supervising principals showed a few significant differences: women are more inclined than men to consider a final occupational goal in classroom teaching at the elementary school level; to work toward a position as a central office supervisor; and to avoid the superintendency. In contrast, men were more inclined toward the position of superintendent of schools.

The goals of director of elementary education or superintendent of schools held strongly in all of the regional categories except the Southeastern states. Here the position of supervisor appealed to the largest proportion of the supervising prin-

cipals reporting. The secondary school principalship as a possible final occupational goal also stood out in the Southeastern states as compared with the other regions.

Among supervising principals, when classified on the basis of the size of the school system, the positions of supervisor and of director of elementary education were the most likely final occupational goals in communities with 3,000 or more pupils. This situation was strongest in the largest systems (25,000 or more pupils). In the smallest communities (300 to 2,999 pupils) the outstanding goal for 38 in 100 was the superintendency.

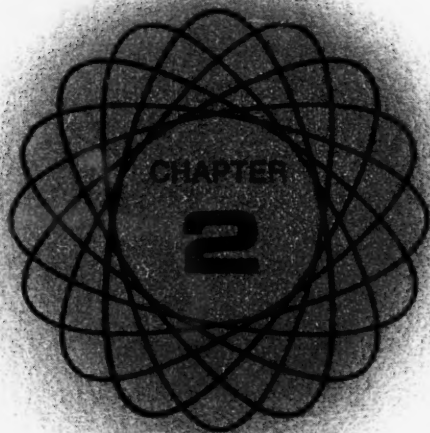
On the basis of college preparation those with the A.B. or less aspired in greatest proportion for the position of supervisor; those with the M.A. or higher preparation were more inclined to look toward the position of director of elementary education.

On the basis of years of experience as a principal the supervising principals with

less than 5 years of experience considered becoming a supervisor, a director of elementary education, or a superintendent of schools in about the same proportions (about 1 in 4). If they had 5-14 years of experience as a principal they were less interested (1 in 6) in being a supervisor although the directorship of elementary education and the superintendency had strong appeal (1 in 4). Those with 15 or more years of experience as principal also were aiming for the directorship (1 in 4) but their interest in the supervisorship and the superintendency was substantially less (1 in 6 and 1 in 7 respectively) than the principals in the other categories.

The shift in final occupational goals tempts one to speculate even though the 1968 inquiry form did not pinpoint the

details. One possibility is that elementary school principals of today, because of the larger proportion with advanced degrees, have developed a heightened interest in curriculum development, conditions under which better learning takes place, devices and methods of instruction, and the other educational pursuits most commonly associated with positions of the modern supervisor and director of elementary education. While the typical principal with less preparation also has these interests, he is so involved in administration, management, community relations, supervision, and records that he has relatively less opportunity and incentive to form strong attachments to the instructional research and experimentation usually associated with advance professional preparation.



EXPERIENCE AND PREPARATION

CHAPTER I has already dealt with one aspect of the principal's experience—the type of position held prior to entering the principalship. The present chapter will deal more extensively with the years of service in various capacities and with preparation. Preparation will include self-study, opinions as to the preparation best suited for those becoming principals, and participation in professional associations.

How many years of experience have you had in school work?

Among the sample as a whole the median years of total experience in school work is 18 years. One principal reported just one year of experience; one reported a total of 50 years. In the 1958 survey the median total years of experience was 23.2 years. The difference in the medians of the two surveys probably can be explained by the recent entrance into the principalship of a substantial number of young men.

The same median—18 years—was found

for the total sample, for teaching principals, and for supervising principals (Table 11). Differences showed up, however, between men and women supervising principals. The respective medians were 17 years and 32 years. Over half of the men supervising principals (65 percent) had less than 20 years of total experience in school work; 58 percent of the women supervising principals had 30 or more years of total experience.

Geographic regions revealed significant differences. Fifty-nine in 100 supervising principals in the Middle region have had less than 20 years of experience in school work; 58 in 100 in the West; 49 in 100 in the Southeast; and 46 in 100 in the Northeast. The medians by geographic areas are shown in Table 11.

Supervising principals in the largest school systems (25,000 or more pupils) have considerably more total school experience than those in the other two enrollment categories. The median total

Table 11. Total Experience in School Work

Years	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
Less than 9	13.3%	25.5%	10.5%	13.5%	.2%	7.6%	12.6%	13.5%	7.9%
10-19	40.3	27.0	43.4	51.5	14.9	38.2	36.2	45.9	50.3
20-29	18.6	19.0	18.6	16.2	26.6	17.4	23.8	14.5	20.0
30-39	20.4	20.1	20.5	15.2	39.0	27.1	20.3	18.0	18.4
40 or more	7.3	8.5	7.0	3.5	19.2	9.7	7.1	8.1	3.6
Total	99.9%	100.1%	100.0%	99.9%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.2%
Median	18	18	18	17	32	22	20	17	17
Number	2,299	423	1,876	1,459	417	403	395	571	507

school-work experience of supervising principals with 15 or more years experience as principals was three times the median number of years of total experience of those with less than 5 years as a principal. In general, the supervising principals with the M.A. or higher degrees have had less total school experience than those with the A.B. or less.

How many years of experience have you had in elementary classroom teaching?

Fourteen in 100 in the total sample re-

ported that they had had no experience as elementary classroom teachers. The median number of years of classroom experience (including the zeros) was 6 years. The range was from zero experience to 50 years in elementary school classrooms.

Fifty-four in 100 teaching principals had less than 10 years of experience in elementary school classrooms; 70 in 100 (69.9 percent) of the supervising principals had had less than 10 years of elementary school classroom teaching experience (Table 12).

Table 12. Experience in Elementary School Classroom Teaching

Years	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
0-1	18.8%	19.0%	18.8%	23.7%	1.7%	13.4%	35.1%	16.5%	13.0%
2-9	48.2	35.1	51.1	59.2	23.4	46.9	37.1	51.6	65.0
10-19	20.3	19.2	20.5	14.6	40.7	24.3	18.2	22.4	17.0
20-29	9.4	14.6	8.3	2.3	29.0	12.7	8.7	8.2	4.6
30-39	2.8	10.3	1.2	.2	4.8	2.7	.8	1.4	.2
40 or more	.4	1.7	.1	.0	.5	.0	.3	.0	.2
Total	99.9%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%	100.2%	100.1%	100.0%
Median (including zero)	6	8	6	5	15	8	3	6	6
Number	2,270	410	1,860	1,442	418	403	391	566	500

Women supervising principals have had more elementary school classroom experience than men supervising principals. The respective medians were 15 and 5 years. Almost 83 percent of the men reported less than 10 years; 34.3 percent of the women had 20 or more years experience in elementary school classrooms.

Supervising principals in the Southeastern states had less experience as elementary school classroom teachers than principals in the other geographic regions. More than 35 percent of the Southeast principals had from zero to one year of classroom experience; the median years of experience for this region was only 3 years (Table 12).

How many years of experience have you had in secondary school teaching?

Sixty-six in 100 of the entire sample reported that they had not had any experience in secondary school classrooms. Those who had such experience showed a median of 5 years. Secondary school experience was most likely to be reported by supervising principals rather than by teaching principals; by men rather than by women; by principals with 15 or more years experience as a principal; and by

those working in the Southeast as compared with the other three regions.

What has been your total experience in classroom teaching?

A number of those reporting indicated that they had had miscellaneous types of classroom teaching other than in regular elementary and secondary schools. Adding together all types of classroom experience produced a median of 9 years for the sample as a whole (the median for elementary school experience was 6 years for the total sample). The difference between the median total elementary school classroom experience and the median total classroom experience of all types was about 2 years in all geographic regions except in the Southeast where it was 6 years. This latter fact reinforces the earlier statement that the supervising principals in the Southeast region are less likely to have an elementary school classroom background than those in other geographic regions.

How many years of experience have you had as a principal?

Fifty-two in 100 of the entire sample of principals reported less than 10 years of

Table 13. Total Experience as a Principal

Years	Supervising principals								
	Total sample	Teaching principals	Geographic regions						
			All	Men	Women	NE	SE	Middle	West
1-3	22.3%	31.9%	20.2%	22.6%	11.8%	22.8%	19.8%	21.5%	16.9%
4-9	30.1	28.8	30.3	31.6	26.0	31.7	25.9	31.7	31.1
10-19	31.6	22.6	33.6	31.1	42.6	32.3	32.2	33.1	36.4
20-29	11.3	11.3	11.3	10.1	15.4	10.0	14.2	10.7	10.9
30-39	4.2	4.8	4.0	4.2	3.4	2.7	6.9	2.5	4.5
40 or more	.5	.4	.6	.4	1.0	.5	1.0	.6	.2
Total	100.0%	99.8%	100.0%	100.0%	100.2%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%
Median	9	7	9	9	11	9	10	9	10
Number	2,292	416	1,876	1,460	416	403	394	571	508

experience as a principal. The median of the total group was 9 years. Almost 5 in 100 had 30 or more years of experience in the principalship (Table 13).

Teaching principals as a group had a median of 7 years of experience as a principal. Sixty-one in 100 had less than 10 years in the principalship.

Among supervising principals 50.5 percent had less than 10 years as principals. The median was 9 years.

Fifty-four in 100 men supervising principals and 38 in 100 of the women principals had less than 10 years of experience as principals. The respective medians of the two groups were 9 and 11 years.

In all three school system sizes (see Table 14 for the enrollment range of each category) supervising principals have had a median experience of 11 years in the principalship. Those with the A.B. or less in preparation had, on the average, served 2 years longer as principals than had those with the M.A. or higher degrees.

How many years have you held your present position?

The question of how long a principal should remain in a given principalship has

long been debated. Those who are devoted to the "community school" often see advantages in the principal remaining in the same school for at least 10 years. Others have advocated that principals should change positions in school systems about every 5 years so as to maintain alertness and avoid "getting into ruts." Research has not supplied an answer to the question.

The typical or median principal in the present survey has held his present position for 5 years. The extremes are represented by several who reported 1 year and by one who held the same position for 44 years.

Seventy in 100 of the entire sample have been in their present positions less than 10 years (Table 14). Approximately this same proportion held both for teaching principals and for supervising principals as total groups.

There is a significant difference between men and women supervising principals—73.4 percent of the men and 57.8 percent of the women have held their present positions less than 10 years. Apparently also, principals in the largest communities (25,000 or more pupils) and in the smallest

Table 14. Total Years in Present Position

Years	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
1-3	37.6%	41.6%	36.8%	40.8%	22.8%	34.9%	34.3%	42.6%
4-9	32.4	28.9	33.1	32.6	35.0	39.6	31.6	30.1
10-19	23.1	19.6	23.8	21.5	32.2	21.3	26.5	21.8
20-29	5.8	8.4	5.3	4.2	8.8	3.2	6.8	4.4
30-39	1.0	1.5	.8	.9	.7	.6	.7	1.2
40 or more	.1	.0	.2	.1	.5	.4	.1	.0
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%
Median	5	5	5	5	8	7	6	5
Number	2,265	408	1,857	1,445	412	470	864	523

EXPERIENCE AND PREPARATION

communities (300-2,999 pupils) are more likely to have remained less than 10 years in their present positions than those in the middle-size school systems (3,000-24,999 pupils).

Those with the A.B. or less in preparation have, on the average, held their present positions longer than those with the M.A. or higher degrees. The medians of the two groups were 7 and 5 years respectively. Regional differences were small.

How many principalships have you held within your present school system?

As further evidence of mobility, principals were asked to report the number of different schools within the school system where they had served. Most principals had been the administrative head of only one school but one individual (a supervising principal) reported being in 16 different schools.

Eighty-one in 100 teaching principals have served in only one school in their present school systems; 59.6 percent of the supervising principals have served only in one school (Table 15). Men are more likely to have been in two schools than the women supervising principals. Those with the M.A. or higher degrees are more

likely to have served in two schools as compared with those with the A.B. or less preparation. Regional differences were small and not significant.

The most significant difference was in terms of school system enrollment. In the largest systems (25,000 or more pupils) substantial numbers of supervising principals (more than half) have served in two or even in three or four schools; the median for the group was two. In the smallest systems 71 in 100 of the supervising principals have been employed only in one school within their present school systems.

What is your highest earned college degree?

Of the total sample approximately 72 in 100 had the M.A.; close to 80 in 100 (79.9 percent) had the M.A. or higher preparation. Among teaching principals 62.5 percent had the A.B. or lesser preparation; 37.4 had the M.A. or higher preparation (Table 16).

Of the supervising principals only 0.6 percent had less than the A.B. degree; 89.5 percent had the M.A. or higher preparation. Men supervising principals are likely to have more preparation than women supervising principals—90.5 percent of the

Table 15. Number of Different Schools in Which Principals Have Served in the Present School System

Number of positions	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
1.....	63.8%	81.4%	59.6%	59.1%	61.2%	48.3%	60.7%	70.7%
2.....	21.4	9.6	24.3	25.6	20.3	25.6	25.2	20.8
3.....	8.6	4.1	9.7	9.3	10.9	14.5	9.1	5.3
4 or more.....	6.1	4.9	6.4	6.0	7.6	11.5	5.0	3.2
Total.....	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%
Median.....	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1
Number.....	1,900	366	1,534	1,140	394	433	726	375

Table 16. Highest Earned College Degree Reported

Degree	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
No degree	.6%	2.8%	.2%	.1%	.5%	.5%	.3%	.0%	.0%
Diploma (2 years)	2.6	12.4	.4	.0	1.7	.2	.8	.5	.0
A.B.	16.9	47.3	10.0	9.4	12.3	7.1	14.0	7.7	12.0
M.A.	71.6	35.1	79.9	81.1	75.7	75.7	76.3	84.1	81.2
Professional diploma (6 yrs.)	6.5	2.3	7.4	7.2	8.0	12.0	8.0	6.1	4.7
Doctor's	1.8	.0	2.2	2.2	1.9	4.4	.8	1.6	2.2
Total	100.0%	99.9%	100.1%	100.0%	100.1%	99.9%	100.2%	100.0%	100.1%
Number	2,318	427	1,891	1,468	423	408	400	573	510

men and 85.6 percent of the women had the M.A. or higher preparation.

Relatively more of the supervising principals in the Northeast have reached higher levels of preparation than those in the other sections—the respective percents with preparation *beyond* the M.A. are 16.4 percent in the Northeast; 8.8 percent, Southeast; 7.7 percent, Middle area; and 6.9 percent, West (Table 16).

There was relatively little difference among the categories based on the enrollment of school systems. Also there were only slight differences among the categories based on number of years of experience as a principal.

Considerable change has taken place

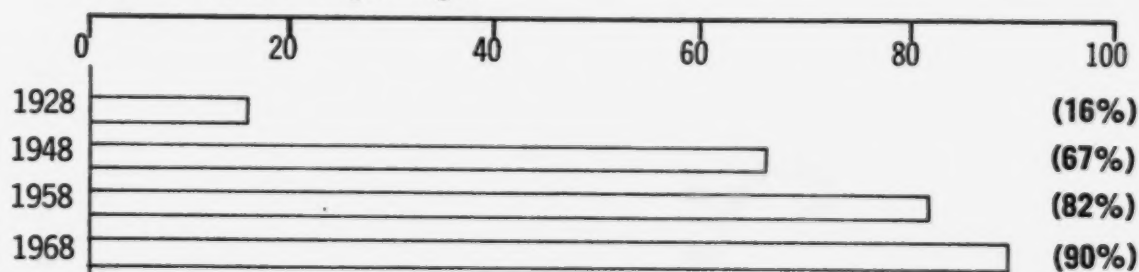
during the past 40 years in the academic preparation of elementary school principals. The comparisons that can be made between the four DESP surveys, while limited, are indicative of directions. For example: the number of supervising elementary school principals with no earned college degrees was 54 percent in 1928; 4 percent in 1948; 2 percent in 1958; and less than 1 percent (0.2 percent) in 1968.

For supervising principals, in round numbers, the percent with the M.A. or higher degrees was 15 percent in 1928; 64 percent in 1948; 76 percent in 1958; and 90 percent in the present survey. Those with the doctor's degree have shown no significant change: 3 percent in 1948; 3 percent in

Figure III

Forty Years of Academic Progress by Supervising Principals

Percent with M.A. or higher degrees



1958; and 2.2 percent in the present survey.

What was your major area of undergraduate college study?

In the sample as a whole 41 in 100 principals majored in the social studies during their years of undergraduate study; 24 in 100 had English majors; 16 in 100 had primary interests in science. The percents, when teaching principals and supervising principals were tabulated separately, did not vary significantly from those of the total sample (Table 17).

Significant differences did appear in comparisons between men and women supervising principals: 61.7 percent of the men as compared with 36.0 percent of the women came from the two fields of science and social studies. Women principals strongly preferred the field of English-literature during their undergraduate days (47.7 percent as compared with 17.2 percent for the men).

Tabulations by geographic regions showed English-literature losing ground among supervising principals as we move from East to West. Science and social studies appeared to gain significantly in the Westward movement.

Differences were small when tabulations were made on the basis of size of school systems, number of years of service as a principal, and academic preparation.

A study of senior high school principals (NASSP, 1965) showed that 29 percent majored in the humanities in undergraduate college work; 18 percent in physical (or biological) sciences; 14 percent in the social sciences; 12 percent in education; 11 percent in physical education; and all others, 15 percent. A similar study of junior high principals showed that 24 percent had undergraduate majors in the humanities; 19 percent in education; 15 percent in the physical (or biological) sciences; 15 percent in the social sciences; 12 percent in physical education; and all others, 15 percent.*

While the definitions of the major areas in the NASSP studies are not the same as in the present DESP survey, two observations can be made: (1) elementary school principals are far more likely to have an undergraduate college major in the social sciences than are secondary school principals; and (2) secondary principals are far more likely to have an undergraduate college background in physical education

Table 17. Major Areas of Undergraduate Study by Principals

Area	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
English and literature.....	23.8%	24.3%	23.7%	17.2%	47.7%	30.6%	26.4%	21.7%	18.5%
Foreign languages.....	1.9	1.3	2.0	1.6	3.4	3.7	.5	1.3	2.6
Mathematics.....	7.1	9.9	6.6	7.4	3.6	5.0	9.1	5.5	7.0
Sciences.....	15.8	15.7	15.9	18.9	4.6	12.8	18.4	15.8	16.3
Social studies.....	40.6	41.5	40.4	42.8	31.4	36.1	38.3	42.9	42.4
Physical education.....	2.9	2.0	3.0	3.6	.8	1.6	2.1	5.0	2.8
Other.....	7.9	5.3	8.5	8.5	8.5	10.2	5.2	7.9	10.4
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%
Number.....	2,210	395	1,815	1,427	388	382	386	545	502

than are elementary school principals.

What is your major field of graduate college study?

Ninety-five percent of the total sample reported a special area of graduate study; 5 percent reported no specialization or no graduate work. Teaching principals showed the least number with graduate work—21.4 percent without a specialization or had not taken graduate work (Table 18).

Men supervising principals showed more interest in "general school administration" than did the women supervising principals. This result coincides well with Table 10 in which men were much more interested in ultimately being superintendents. Women supervising principals, in contrast, showed more interest than the men principals in graduate study of "elementary school instruction" and of "elementary school supervision and curriculum."

Tabulations on the basis of school sys-

tem enrollment showed that in the smaller systems (300-2,999 pupils) there was more interest in "general school administration" as a field for graduate study than there was among supervising principals of the larger school systems (Table 18). The supervising principals in the largest school systems appeared to show substantially more interest in elementary school supervision and curriculum and in an academic field (not tabulated separately) than principals in the medium-size and smallest school systems.

There were no significant differences when the tabulations were made by years of experience as a principal. On the basis of preparation, those with the M.A. or higher degrees showed a marked interest in "general school administration" as compared with those who had the A.B. or lesser preparation. There was also a significantly larger proportion interested in general school administration among the supervising principals in the Southeast as com-

Table 18. Major Field of Graduate Work by Principals

Area	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
No graduate work or specialty.....	5.0%	21.4%	1.5%	1.2%	2.9%	.4%	1.5%	2.6%
Elem. school administration.....	47.5	30.9	51.0	50.3	53.5	50.3	55.1	44.9
Sec. school administration.....	3.9	5.0	3.7	4.6	.5	2.3	3.1	5.8
General school administration.....	19.6	10.2	21.7	26.7	3.8	15.2	21.6	27.5
An academic subject.....	4.6	7.2	4.0	4.0	4.3	7.2	3.0	3.0
Elementary instruction.....	7.3	19.0	4.8	3.2	10.6	6.3	4.7	3.8
Elementary supervision and curriculum.....	10.5	5.0	11.6	8.6	22.3	15.6	9.6	11.5
Other.....	1.6	1.2	1.6	1.5	2.2	2.7	1.6	.8
Total.....	100.0%	99.9%	99.9%	100.1%	100.1%	100.0%	100.2%	99.9%
Number.....	2,285	401	1,884	1,467	417	475	879	530

pared with the other geographic regions. Significantly larger proportions of the supervising principals in the West, as compared with the other geographic regions, had a graduate major in elementary school administration.

In the 1958 survey 3 percent of the supervising principals reported that they had not taken any graduate work or had not selected a specialization (1.5 percent in 1968); 60 percent had selected elementary school administration (51.0 percent in 1968); 19 percent were interested in elementary school supervision and curriculum (11.6 percent in 1968); 5 percent were studying elementary school instruction (4.8 percent in 1968); 4 percent were interested in "the superintendency" (which is comparable to the 21.7 percent focusing on "general school administration" in 1968); 4 percent were majoring in secondary school administration (3.7 percent in 1968); 5 percent were studying a specific subject area (4 percent in 1968). The two sets of percent reported in the two surveys are somewhat similar, but in 1968 supervising principals have less interest than in 1958 in two college majors: elementary school administration and elementary school supervision (and curriculum). These fields apparently have lost to majors in general school administration.

What is your evaluation of college instructional methods?

In the 1958 survey principals were asked to evaluate a list of the typical methods used in college instruction. A similar question was asked in the 1968 survey. In commenting upon the tables in the 1958 survey its authors stated that "apparently principals liked to talk things over." The present survey (Table 19) continues to support that conclusion although there have been some changes in the proportion of principals supporting various methods of instruction.

In Table 19, reporting for the total sample, the items are listed in order of decreasing percentages of the "much value" ratings. The first four items were in the same order in the 1958 survey; field studies and the internship have apparently risen in estimated value between 1958 and 1968; term papers as a method slipped from next to last in 1958 to the bottom of the list in 1968. One reason for the change of position of some items is that more principals reported that by 1968 they had experienced a given method (e.g. the internship). Both the internship and the field studies methods might have received other higher ratings if larger numbers of principals had reported experience with these college methods.

Table 19. Evaluation of College and University Instructional Methods

Method	Of much value	Of some value	Of little value	Have not experienced it	Total
Class discussions	51.5%	37.5%	3.9%	7.1%	100.0%
Workshops	41.6	30.9	4.6	23.0	100.1
Seminars	40.6	32.5	4.2	22.7	100.0
Research	31.5	45.5	9.7	13.3	100.0
Field Studies	26.8	28.0	4.6	40.6	100.0
Course lectures	18.0	63.2	11.7	7.2	100.1
Internship	15.2	5.5	.9	78.5	100.1
Term papers	9.5	46.1	32.5	11.9	100.0

Tabulations of teaching principals, as compared with supervising principals, showed slight differences in their estimates of the value of specific instructional methods, e.g. teaching principals showed a relatively stronger preference for class discussions. Separate tabulations, on the basis of preparation, indicated that supervising principals with the M.A. or higher preparation had a stronger preference for class discussions than those with the A.B. or less.

Tabulations by size of school system, number of years in the principalship, and geographic regions revealed no significant differences. Approximately the same percent of the supervising principals voted "much value" on each specific method regardless of the tabulation categories. Only one difference stood out—a substantially larger percent voted research as "much value" among those with the M.A. or higher degrees as compared with those who had the A.B. or lesser preparation.

What type of experience or preparation has contributed most to your success as a principal?

Eighty in 100 of the total sample (82.4 percent) attributed their success as principals largely to two types of experience: (1) their experience as classroom teachers and (2) their on-the-job experience as principals (Table 20). Less than 2 percent gave credit to each of the following: their college preparation, their experience as an intern, and in-service study and training programs of the school system where employed.

Teaching principals placed special emphasis upon their classroom experience as the major factor making for their success as principals. Women supervising principals, significantly more than the men supervising principals, credited classroom experience as the major factor in their success as principals. Men, on the other

hand, stressed on-the-job experience. This finding is consistent with Table 12 which shows that the women supervising principals had a median experience of 15 years in elementary school classrooms as compared with only 5 years, on the average, for the men supervising principals.

It is noteworthy that classroom experience seems to be related to the size of the school system. As compared with smaller systems, it was reported with least frequency as the factor making for success by supervising principals in the largest school systems (25,000 or more pupils). Classroom experience rose in relative standing with the decline in size of school system. On-the-job experience also was mentioned with increasing frequency as the size of school system declined. These trends can be explained partly by the much larger proportion of principals in the largest cities listing "experience as an assistant principal" as the major factor in their success. The internship also is more likely to be reported by those in the largest communities, although the differences in percent among the system size categories was not large.

Tabulations by number of years experience as a principal showed that those with less than 5 years experience were more likely to report classroom experience as a major success factor than were those with 15 or more years as a principal. On the other hand, the more experienced principals were most likely to list on-the-job experience as a principal.

Regional differences were not large except on the factor of "experience as an assistant principal" which showed up in significant amounts in the Northeast and the West. This type of experience is apparently more characteristic of these two regions than in other parts of the nation.

The level of college preparation did not reveal any large differences. There was some indication that those with the A.B.

Table 20. Preparation or Experience Contributing Most to Success as a Principal

Type of experience	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
As classroom teacher.....	40.9%	50.0%	38.8%	34.9%	52.7%	29.9%	41.1%	43.1%
College education.....	1.9	3.3	1.6	1.8	1.0	1.5	1.8	1.3
On-the-job as a principal.....	41.5	39.8	41.9	45.9	27.7	38.6	42.3	44.1
As an intern.....	1.8	1.2	2.0	2.1	1.4	2.3	1.9	1.7
As an assistant principal.....	7.1	1.9	8.3	7.9	9.8	18.2	5.8	3.6
In-service programs of school systems.....	1.5	.9	1.6	1.6	1.9	2.3	1.3	1.7
By self-study and research.....	3.7	2.4	4.0	4.2	3.1	4.4	3.9	3.8
Other.....	1.6	.5	1.8	1.6	2.4	2.8	1.9	.8
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%
Number.....	2,304	422	1,882	1,463	419	472	879	531

or less prized most highly their experience in the classroom; those with the M.A. or higher preparation gave highest credit for success to their on-the-job experience as principals.

Do you think that principals should be released during the school day for certain professional improvement activities?

For a number of years some sentiment has been developing that principals should be released during the school day to engage in certain professional improvement activities. Many types of activities might have been listed but the questionnaire focused attention on four types that are frequently mentioned in professional literature and conferences (Table 21). In the heading of this table "Tch." means teaching principals; "Supv." means supervising principals.

Regular college study received the smallest vote as "very important" although there were a number of principals who thought released time for this purpose was "good, but not necessary." Teaching prin-

cipals were more inclined to consider regular college study in-service plans as important than were supervising principals.

For the total sample the largest proportion of principals voting "very important" were for in-service programs within their school systems. Next in highest percent of very important ratings was the plan for exchange visits among principals in their schools. About 45 in 100 principals thought the programs of professional associations were important enough to justify released time during regular school hours.

Tabulations made of supervising principals on various bases did not reveal many significant differences. Regionally, regular college study released time stood out significantly in the Southeast; in-service programs, in the Middle region and the West. On the basis of school system enrollment released time for the in-service programs of the school system was significantly higher as "very important" in the largest school systems as compared with the smallest; time for professional association programs was significantly

Table 21. Opinions of Principals on the Desirability of Released Time for Certain Professional Improvement Activities

Possible activity	Very important			Good, not necessary			Not a good idea			No opinion		
	Total	Tch.	Supv.	Total	Tch.	Supv.	Total	Tch.	Supv.	Total	Tch.	Supv.
Regular college study.....	17.1%	25.2%	15.3%	40.1%	34.5%	41.4%	32.9%	22.6%	35.2%	9.8%	17.7%	8.1%
School system in-service programs	63.4	54.6	65.3	27.6	29.1	27.3	3.4	3.6	3.4	5.6	12.6	4.0
Professional association programs	45.2	39.6	46.4	41.7	39.8	42.1	6.1	6.3	6.0	7.1	14.3	5.5
Exchange visits among principals in their schools.....	60.7	45.1	64.1	29.8	35.4	28.6	2.7	5.1	2.1	6.9	14.3	5.2

higher in the smallest school systems (300-2,999 enrollment). Men supervising principals were more interested in exchange visits among principals than the women supervising principals. Also, those with less than 15 years of experience as principals were more inclined to vote "very important" on exchange visits than were principals who had 15 or more years of administrative experience.

What is the value of certain professional growth experience?

The preceding question sought to test the opinions of principals when the question hinged on releasing principals during regular school hours so that they might seek certain professional improvement activities. The next question tried to discover which professional growth experiences principals thought were of most value to them (Table 22).

Three types of experience stand out clearly as of most value: (1) teaching

classes in their own schools; (2) self-directed study and research; and (3) institutes and workshops.

Table 22 shows that 66 in 100 principals (66.2 percent) have not had experience in writing professional materials for publication; 71 in 100 reported that they had not taught college classes; and 50 in 100 had not had professional improvement opportunities by means of educational tours and international seminars.

Marked differences between teaching principals and supervising principals were not frequent. The most outstanding difference was the strong belief of teaching principals that "teaching classes in my own school" was the most valuable of the listed growth experiences (75 in 100 teaching principals listed it as being of much value). The item rated of much value by the largest proportion of supervising principals was "self-directed study and research."

Tabulations of the supervising principals

Table 22. Opinions of Principals on the Value of Certain Professional Growth Experiences

Growth experience	Of much value			Of some value			Of little value			No experience		
	Total	Tch.	Supv.	Total	Tch.	Supv.	Total	Tch.	Supv.	Total	Tch.	Supv.
Writing for publication	7.0%	5.5%	7.3%	21.8%	13.7%	23.6%	5.0%	2.2%	5.7%	66.2%	78.6%	63.5%
Teaching college classes	9.1	5.1	10.0	15.4	8.9	16.9	4.0	3.1	4.2	71.4	82.9	68.9
Teaching classes in my school	57.9	74.9	54.1	29.9	14.2	33.3	5.0	2.4	5.6	7.3	8.4	7.0
School system committees	42.2	36.4	43.5	45.5	40.5	46.6	4.9	6.5	4.6	7.4	16.6	5.4
Consulting (other schools and systems)	29.9	27.2	30.5	32.2	33.3	32.0	2.5	2.9	2.4	35.3	36.6	35.0
Educational tours and international seminars	21.4	18.3	22.1	26.0	19.5	27.4	2.9	1.7	3.1	49.7	60.5	47.3
Active roles in professional associations	37.3	35.7	37.6	44.5	34.7	46.7	7.1	6.7	7.2	11.1	22.9	8.5
Institutes and workshops	51.3	41.4	53.5	38.9	39.3	38.9	2.8	2.4	2.9	7.0	16.9	4.8
Self-directed study and research	56.3	50.8	57.5	34.4	33.0	34.8	1.8	1.4	1.9	7.4	14.7	5.8

by enrollment of the school system, preparation, sex, and other factors suggested but did not firmly establish several differences. Professional writing had relatively higher rating (much value and some value combined) among those who had more than 5 years of experience as principals and among those with the M.A. or higher preparation. Teaching college classes rated more frequently as "much value" among supervising principals in the largest

systems, among those with the M.A. or higher preparation, and among principals in the Northeast region. Teaching classes within one's own school rated higher among those with the A.B. or less preparation than among those with higher preparation. Serving on school system committees was rated higher by women supervising principals than it was by men supervising principals. Consulting in other schools and school systems was more frequently rated

of "much value" by supervising principals in the smallest school systems, by those with 15 or more years experience as principals, and by principals in the Southeast region. Educational tours found relatively higher rating among women principals, among those with the M.A. and higher preparation, and among principals in the Southeast. Professional association activities, as a growth experience, was rated highest by women supervising principals, by those with the M.A. or higher preparation, and by principals in the Southeast region. Workshops were rated higher by relatively more supervising principals who had 15 or more years experience as principals, and by women supervising principals. Self-directed study showed very small differences regardless of the categories used in tabulations.

How many hours per week do you devote to professional growth activities?

In the questionnaire, immediately following the evaluation of the types of professional growth activities, principals were

asked to report the average number of hours given each week to such activities. About 1 in 100 principals reported that they gave no time to such activities; others reported giving an average of 25 hours per week.

Table 23 reveals mostly small differences among the various categories of supervising principals. The medians are the same—5 hours—for all of the classifications. Similar results were obtained when tabulations were made by the size of school systems, preparation, and geographic regions.

The outstanding percent in Table 23 is the proportion of teaching principals reporting that they spend 11 or more hours per week in professional growth activities. The median amount of time shown by teaching principals is 12 hours—more than twice the median revealed by any other classification. A possible explanation is that teaching principals are so involved during regular school hours with their teaching that they cannot readily engage in most of the professional growth ac-

Table 23. Average Number of Hours per Week Devoted to Professional Growth Activities

Hours	Supervising principals							
	Total sample	Teaching principals	Years as principal					
			All	Men	Women	Less than 5 years	5-14 years	15 or more years
None	1.2%	2.6%	.9%	.9%	.9%	1.1%	1.1%	.2%
1-2	16.9	13.3	17.7	17.0	20.2	16.0	17.8	19.4
3-4	19.4	10.4	21.1	21.2	21.0	21.0	20.1	22.6
5-6	24.2	11.6	26.8	27.2	25.3	25.5	27.7	26.9
7-8	6.5	2.9	7.2	6.9	8.5	6.1	8.2	6.5
9-10	14.0	6.7	15.5	15.4	15.6	15.8	16.2	14.2
11 or more	17.8	52.5	10.8	11.4	8.5	14.4	8.9	10.3
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	99.9%	100.0%	100.1%
Median (including none)	5	12	5	5	5	5	5	5
Number	2,071	345	1,726	1,374	352	443	809	465

tivities. Since they must participate in these activities in after-school hours, they may be more aware of these hours used than the supervising principals. For supervising principals, the professional growth activities are often so much a part of many school days that they may under-report the number of hours devoted to such activities.

Another point worth noting in Table 23 is the relatively small differences among supervising principals when their responses were tabulated by the number of years they had served as principals. The number of hours reported by the more experienced (15 years or more as principal), who might be expected to be easing off on their professional growth activities, strongly supports the conclusion that their professional growth activities have not diminished with more experience.

What is your status with regard to state certification?

The question of the certification that should be required of elementary school principals has long been debated. Some have contended that a special state certificate would tend to standardize and im-

prove the preparation of principals and that it would give the principalship clearer professional status and more prestige. Others, such as certification officers in state departments of education, have been reluctant to see the development of many kinds of special state certificates. Our purpose here is merely to report the types of state certificates that principals usually hold. The value of special certification remains an unanswered question.

Thirty-six in 100 of the total sample reported that they held a special certificate for elementary school principals only; 32 in 100 had a general administrative certificate only; and 19 in 100 had only a certificate for teaching. Most of the remainder (about 12 in 100) reported various combinations of special and general certificates (Table 24).

Teaching principals and supervising principals differed significantly in the proportions holding administrative and teaching certificates. Fifty-nine in 100 teaching principals had only state teaching certificates; only about 11 in 100 of the supervising principals were limited to a teaching certificate.

Table 24. The Principal's Status with Respect to State Certification

Type of certification	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
Special el. principal's certificate only.....	36.3%	18.9%	40.2%	39.0%	44.4%	58.9%	26.2%	39.2%	37.3%
General administrative certificate only.....	32.2	15.4	35.9	38.3	27.6	14.8	43.8	32.8	49.9
Teacher's certificate only.....	19.2	59.1	10.5	9.9	12.4	10.0	14.1	15.8	2.2
Others and combinations.....	12.3	6.6	13.4	12.9	15.6	16.3	15.9	12.2	10.7
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%
Number.....	2,268	408	1,860	1,450	410	399	390	564	507

Men and women supervising principals fell into the various categories in about the same proportions, except that the men were more likely to have a general administrative certificate. This fact meshes with Table 10 showing that substantially more men supervising principals than women looked forward to the superintendency. Usually, the general administrative certificate opens more avenues to various types of administrative and supervisory positions and, at the same time, it usually qualifies one to be an elementary school principal.

Various tabulations of the replies of supervising principals, by preparation, size of school system, and other factors revealed no significant differences. The tabulations by geographic regions, however, did show a few different patterns. The special elementary school principals certificate type was markedly outstanding in the Northeast area and relatively least common in the Southeast. In the Southeast and the West the "general administrative only" type of certification was significantly more characteristic than in the Northeast and the Middle regions. The "teacher's

certificate only" type exists with least frequency in the West as compared with other geographic regions.

In which principals associations do you hold membership this year?

Of the total sample 41 in 100 principals hold membership "in all three"—that is, in the Department of Elementary School Principals (NEA), their state principals group, and in the local association or club of principals. Six in 100 belong to the DESP and to their state association only; 3 in 100 belong to the DESP and their local group only (Table 25).

Teaching principals are more likely to limit their memberships to local and state associations of principals—although about one-third have membership in DESP. Nearly 45 in 100 supervising principals have the "all three" memberships (national, state, and local). When the others with some kind of membership (DESP only, DESP-State, etc.) are added then almost 56 in 100 have a DESP connection.

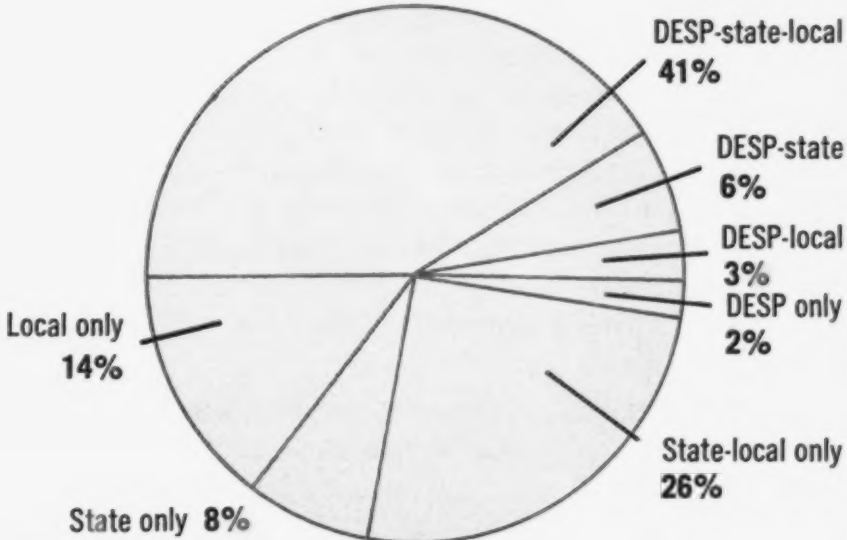
If we consider that the "all-three" type of membership represents a certain amount of professional maturity and devotion to

Table 25. Membership of Principals in Associations for Elementary School Principals

Memberships held	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
						School system enrollment		
			All	Men	Women	25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
DESP only	1.9%	5.0%	1.4%	1.6%	.5%	.4%	1.5%	2.0%
State only	7.8	14.3	6.7	7.8	3.2	.4	7.7	11.4
Local only	13.5	28.6	11.1	12.4	6.8	15.6	8.5	11.2
DESP-State	5.9	2.5	6.4	6.5	6.1	.6	6.4	12.6
DESP-Local	3.2	5.0	3.0	3.0	2.9	5.2	2.2	2.0
State-Local	26.4	25.0	26.6	30.0	15.6	20.1	28.3	30.0
DESP-State and Local	41.4	19.6	44.8	38.7	65.0	57.6	45.3	30.7
Total	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	99.9%	99.9%	99.9%
Number	2,035	280	1,755	1,344	411	462	847	446

Figure IV

Membership
in Principals'
Associations
(Total sample
in 1968)



* DESP means the Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA

professional unity, then the accolade must be presented to the women supervising principals with 65 in 100 holding this all-inclusive status. When tabulated by the enrollment of school systems, the group of principals in the largest school systems

(25,000 or more pupils) wins the "all-inclusive" honors; this all-three type of membership drops off in percent with the decline in size of school system.

Tabulations by the years of experience as a principal show that the all-three type

Table 26. Memberships of Elementary School Principals in General Professional Associations

Membership held	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
NEA only	1.4%	.5%	1.6%	1.6%	1.5%	2.3%	.8%	2.3%	1.0%
State only	3.0	3.9	2.8	3.0	2.0	2.6	1.0	4.5	2.4
Local only	2.1	1.4	2.2	2.1	2.7	8.3	.5	.4	.8
NEA-State	5.2	3.9	5.5	5.2	6.4	3.4	2.3	10.0	5.0
NEA-Local	.9	.7	.9	.6	1.7	3.1	.0	.4	.4
State-Local	14.5	24.8	12.2	13.7	6.9	14.2	14.2	8.1	13.3
NEA-State-Local	71.1	61.7	73.2	72.3	76.5	65.6	78.6	71.5	76.6
Subtotal	98.2%	96.9%	98.4%	98.5%	97.7%	99.5%	97.4%	97.2%	99.5%
AFT (only or in combinations)	1.8	3.0	1.8	1.5	2.1	.6	2.6	2.8	.6
Total	100.0%	99.9%	100.2%	100.0%	99.8%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%
Number	2,229	415	1,814	1,410	404	387	393	530	504

of enrollment is substantially truer of supervising principals with 15 or more years experience as principals than it is of those with less than five years as principals. The younger principal—like the teaching principal—shows some tendency to limit himself to local and state principals groups.

Supervising principals with the M.A. or higher preparation are more likely, by substantial amounts, to hold an all-three type of enrollment. The supervising principals

of the Southeast and the Middle region are also more likely to have all-three membership connections than are principals in the other geographic sections.

The 1958 survey reported that 58 in 100 principals in the total sample, as compared with 41 in 100 in the present survey, belonged to principals associations at all three levels. Only the women supervising principals held their own during the decade (64 percent in 1958 and 65 percent in 1968).

Table 27. College Courses Believed to be Most Important in the Preparation of Beginning Principals

College course	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	Experience as principal		
						Less than 5 years	5-14 years	15 or more years
Child growth development.....	52.4%	51.6%	52.6%	51.1%	57.7%	45.2%	53.4%	58.0%
Supervision of instruction.....	50.6	37.0	53.6	53.1	55.5	51.8	54.9	52.8
Organization and management.....	38.7	33.9	39.7	38.3	44.7	35.7	42.1	38.9
Curriculum development.....	34.5	30.3	35.5	34.6	38.3	42.1	34.6	30.6
Public and community relations.....	32.5	35.8	31.7	32.5	28.9	33.4	32.6	29.0
General school administration.....	25.6	25.7	25.6	27.4	19.4	29.4	25.2	23.2
Tests and measurements.....	14.0	16.7	13.3	14.2	10.5	14.4	10.7	17.0
General psychology.....	13.6	23.0	11.5	11.3	12.2	10.6	11.0	13.3
Educational psychology.....	12.5	17.9	11.3	11.3	11.2	11.0	9.7	14.3
Methods of teaching.....	12.2	15.3	11.5	12.0	9.8	9.7	10.7	14.3
Philosophies of education.....	5.9	5.1	6.1	6.8	3.8	6.8	7.2	3.9
Sociology.....	1.7	1.5	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.2	1.0
Methods of research.....	1.5	1.7	1.4	1.6	1.0	2.1	1.5	.8
School plant design.....	.3	.2	.4	.5	.0	.0	.7	.2
All others.....	.3	.0	.4	.3	.7	.8	.5	.0
Number.....	2,286	413	1,873	1,455	418	473	872	517

Teaching principals and men supervising principals showed substantial losses in the all-three type of membership.

In which general education organizations do you hold membership this year?

Ninety-eight in 100 of the total sample belonged to their local, state, or national association or to some combination of two or more of these three levels. Only 2 in 100 belonged to the American Federation of Teachers (Table 26).

Seventy-one in 100 principals belonged to all three—that is, to their local and state associations and to the NEA. Adding in all other NEA memberships (e.g. NEA only; NEA-State, etc.) brings the total with NEA contacts up to 78.6 percent of the total sample.

Teaching principals are less likely to hold the all-three type of membership in general associations than are supervising principals. Among supervising principals the all-three membership is somewhat more characteristic of the Southeast and the West than of the other regions.

Not shown in Table 26 are the proportions who belong, not only to their professional associations, but also to the AFT. For example: of the 1.8 percent reporting as having AFT connections in the total

sample, 1.2 percent also were members of the NEA. Of the 3.0 percent of the teaching principals with AFT memberships 2.2 percent also belonged to the NEA. More than two-thirds of the principals reporting AFT connections also had membership in the NEA.

Which college courses are most important in the preparation of beginning elementary school principals?

Principals were asked to examine a list of educational courses and to select the three which, in their judgment, were most important in the preparation of beginning principals. The results are summarized in Table 27.

Table 27 is arranged in descending order of the evaluations of the total sample. Clearly more than half of the total group believe that courses on child growth and development and on the supervision of instruction are among the most essential in the preparation of beginning principals. After those two courses there is considerable division of opinion. It should be kept in mind that since each respondent was asked to check the *three most important*, the columns of the table total approximately 300 percent.



WORKING CONDITIONS—TERMS, HOURS OF WORK, AND DISTRIBUTION OF TIME

POLICIES of school systems vary with regard to the term of employment of elementary school principals and as to the number of hours per week required by the position. In some communities the term of employment and the weekly hours of service of principals do not differ markedly from those of classroom teachers. In most communities, however, the principal is expected to give the amount of time that the job requires and the boundaries of what might be considered "reasonable effort" are not clearly marked.

What is your term of employment each year?

Approximately half (47.2 percent) of the total sample reported that they were employed each year for ten but less than eleven months. Twenty-one in 100 are employed for less than ten months; 14 in 100 for eleven but less than twelve months; and 18 in 100 reported a twelve-month term (Table 28).

Sixty-two in 100 teaching principals were employed for less than ten months; almost 93 in 100 reported terms of less than eleven months. In contrast, only 63 in 100 supervising principals were employed for terms of fewer than eleven months.

Some significant differences on a regional basis were revealed for supervising principals. Most marked was the fact that about one-third, in both the Northeast and the Southeast, reported that they were employed for twelve months. The most characteristic term in the Middle region and the West was for ten but less than eleven months. Short terms of less than ten months were most commonly reported by principals in the Middle region.

Tabulations on the basis of school system enrollment did not reveal the significant differences which might have been expected. While in the smallest communities (300-2,999 pupils) relatively more principals reported shorter terms of employment (less than ten months) than those

Table 28. Annual Term of Employment of Principals

Months in term	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
9 but less than 10	21.4%	62.4%	12.1%	11.2%	15.2%	9.2%	11.1%	19.9%	6.5%
10 but less than 11	47.2	30.1	51.0	52.1	47.4	39.7	43.9	61.6	53.6
11 but less than 12	13.6	2.4	16.1	15.8	17.1	16.9	11.6	11.7	24.0
12 months	17.9	5.2	20.7	20.9	20.2	34.2	33.3	6.8	15.9
Total	100.1%	100.1%	99.9%	100.0%	99.9%	100.0%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%
Number	2,306	425	1,881	1,461	420	403	396	573	509

in the larger communities, the smallest communities also revealed larger proportions employed for eleven or twelve months. The categories for years of experience as principals did not show any consistent and significant differences. Academic preparation showed those with the A.B. or less preparation were more likely to have terms of less than ten months as compared with those with the M.A. or higher preparation.

How many weeks are available in summer for vacation, workshops, and other purposes?

Among the sample as a whole, the median is eight weeks in the summer available for recreation and study. Teaching principals reported ten weeks on the average; supervising principals, eight weeks (Table 29).

The size of school systems has some

Table 29. Number of Weeks in Summer Available for Recreation and Study

Number of weeks	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
None	1.1%	1.9%	.9%	1.0%	.7%	1.0%	1.3%	.9%	.6%
1-2	7.6	6.0	8.0	9.0	4.6	6.0	21.8	5.3	2.0
3-4	20.3	5.3	23.7	23.7	23.9	37.1	16.6	13.8	29.5
5-6	12.2	4.1	14.1	14.4	12.8	10.5	11.2	16.1	16.7
7-8	24.9	12.5	27.6	27.6	27.7	20.6	21.6	29.6	35.6
9-10	21.5	32.8	19.0	17.8	22.9	21.6	15.6	26.2	11.4
11 or more	12.3	37.3	6.7	6.5	7.5	3.3	11.9	8.0	4.1
Total	99.9%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.1%	100.0%	99.9%	99.9%
Median (including none)	8	10	8	7	8	6	6	8	7
Number	2,271	415	1,856	1,441	415	399	385	564	508

effect upon the summer period available to supervising principals. In the largest school systems the median "period of freedom" for vacation and workshops was eight weeks; in the middle-size systems the median was seven weeks; and in the smallest systems the median was six weeks. More than half of the principals (56.4 percent) in the largest systems reported from seven to ten weeks; 45.4 percent of those in the middle systems reported from seven to ten weeks; only 39.8 percent in the smallest systems reported equivalent periods.

The median summer period among the women supervising principals was eight weeks; among the men supervising principals it was seven weeks. Those with the M.A. or higher preparation reported a median seven-week summer period as compared with eight weeks among those with the A.B. or lesser preparation.

How many hours per week do you average at your school?

The typical or median principal in the total sample reported 45 hours per week spent at school in regular duties. Teaching principals showed a median of 43 hours;

supervising principals, a median of 45 hours (Table 30).

If we assume that 48 or more hours per week is "service beyond normal expectations," then significant differences appear among the various categories. For example, 39 in 100 men supervising principals as compared with 25 in 100 women supervising principals spend 48 or more hours at their schools. Those giving 48 or more hours per week, on the basis of experience as a principal: 40.8 percent of the supervising principals with less than 5 years of experience; 36.2 percent of those with 5-14 years of experience; and 29.9 percent of those with 15 or more years of experience as principals. The difference is significant between those with less than 5 years of experience and those with 15 or more years as a principal.

On a regional basis 43.1 percent of the supervising principals in the West spend 48 or more hours per week at their schools; in the Northeast, 27.0 percent. The Middle and Southeast regions fall in between with 35.7 percent and 35.2 percent respectively spending 48 or more hours per week at school.

The smallest number of hours spent by an individual was 9 hours—approximately

Table 30. Average Number of Hours per Week Principals Spend at School

Hours per week	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
Less than 30 hours	.5%	1.2%	.3%	.3%	.5%	.2%	.3%	.4%
30-35	4.1	8.9	3.0	2.8	3.4	5.6	2.7	1.3
36-41	22.6	30.1	20.9	18.4	29.4	25.6	21.0	16.6
42-47	39.4	36.8	40.0	39.5	42.1	41.5	39.8	39.0
48 or more	33.5	23.1	35.8	38.9	24.6	27.1	36.1	42.6
Total	100.1%	100.1%	100.0%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%	99.9%	99.9%
Median	45	43	45	45	45	45	45	45
Number	2,282	416	1,866	1,455	411	465	871	530

2 hours per day. The largest number of hours reported was 79—this would be an average of 13 hours per day counting Saturdays.

How many additional hours do you spend in school-related activities?

The median number of additional hours, beyond the hours of regular duties, among the total sample was 5 hours (Table 31). Tabulations for the various categories—teaching principals and supervising principals, men and women supervising principals, and the other groupings—revealed the same median.

If we assume that additional hours beyond eight per week is an “extra load,” we find that 27 in 100 of the total sample are carrying a substantial load of additional hours. Among teaching principals the proportion is 31 in 100; among supervising principals, 26 in 100. The women supervising principals show about 29 in 100 with the additional load; men supervising principals, about 25 in 100, are devoting more than eight hours per week to school-related duties.

On a regional basis the percents indicate that relatively more supervising principals in the Northeast have an extra load of school-related duties—about 34 in 100 with more than eight hours per average week. At the other extreme is the West where 20 in 100 report more than eight hours per week. The Southeast showed 31 percent with an extra load; the Middle region, 22 in 100.

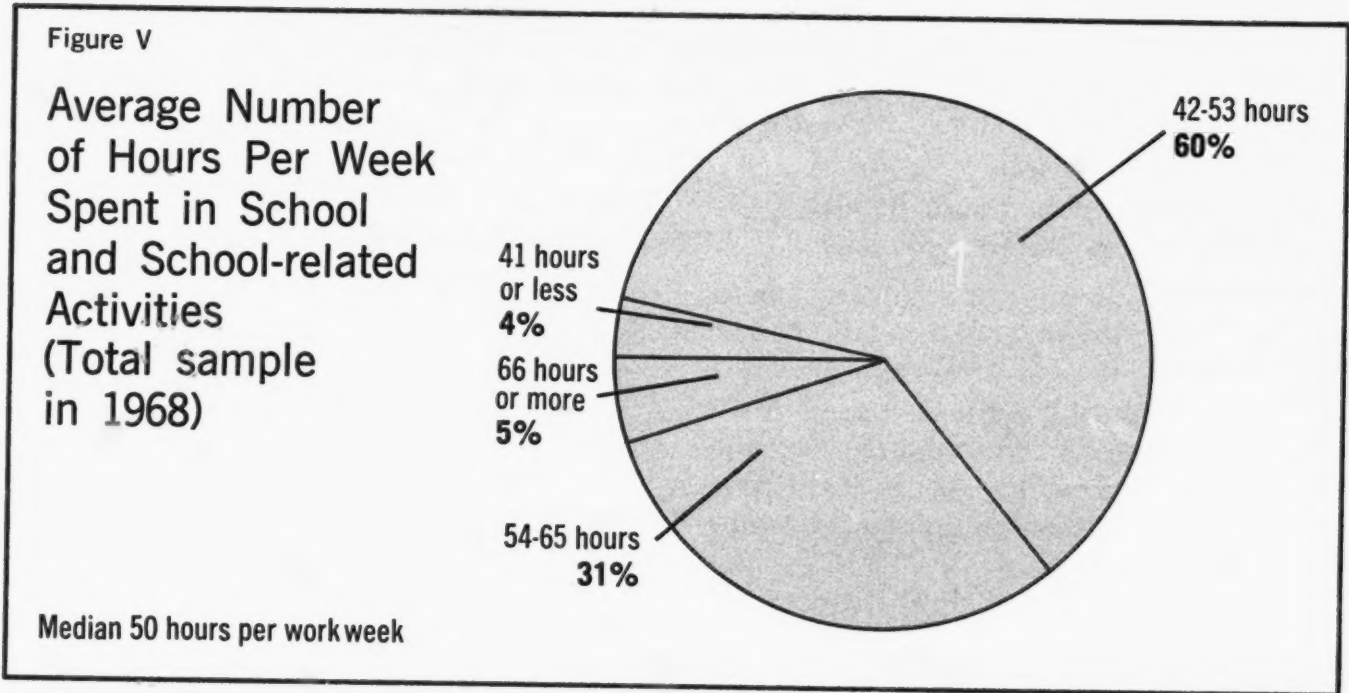
On the basis of years of experience as a principal, the categories showed no significant differences—about 26 in 100 in each category reporting more than eight hours of additional school-related work per week. In the largest systems about 30 in 100 reported the extra load; in communities below 25,000 pupil enrollment, about 25 in 100.

What is the total time spent, in the average week, both on regular and on school-related activities?

The median of the total sample was 50 hours per week on regular duties and the additional school-related activities (Table 32). In a 1965-66 study by the NEA Re-

Table 31. Average Number of Hours, Other than Regular Hours, Spent in School-Related Activities

Hours per week	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
Less than 6 hours	57.3%	53.3%	58.2%	58.9%	55.4%	50.8%	55.6%	62.8%	60.6%
6-8	15.9	15.4	16.0	16.2	15.3	15.4	13.4	15.1	19.4
9-11	17.9	21.0	17.2	16.6	19.5	22.8	17.6	15.4	14.5
12-14	2.4	2.9	2.3	2.2	2.4	2.4	3.9	1.9	1.4
15-17	3.7	3.4	3.7	3.4	4.7	4.2	5.9	3.0	2.6
18-20	1.7	2.7	1.5	1.3	2.4	3.1	2.2	.6	.8
21 or more	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.3	.3	1.3	1.4	1.3	.6
Total	100.1%	100.0%	100.1%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	99.9%
Median	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Number	2,150	377	1,773	1,394	379	382	358	538	495



search Division (see the first footnote, Chapter I) elementary school classroom teachers reported a median of 45.5 hours per week on their regular and school-related duties.

In the light of the 8-hour day and the 48-hour week, widely practiced in gainful

employment throughout the United States, one might conclude from Table 32 that many elementary school principals are called upon to exceed the typical work-week. Seventy-two (71.8 percent) in 100 principals in the total sample work 48 hours or more per week. Among teaching

Table 32. Average Number of Hours per Week Principals Spend at School and in School-Related Activities

Hours per week	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
Less than 30 hours	.2%	1.1%	.1%	.1%	.0%	.0%	.1%	.0%
30-35	.3	.3	.3	.2	.5	.5	.2	.2
36-41	3.8	6.4	3.2	3.4	2.9	3.7	3.5	2.6
42-47	23.7	30.0	22.4	20.7	28.5	26.8	23.5	16.8
48-53	36.3	31.3	37.4	36.6	39.9	38.7	37.1	36.6
54-59	20.2	17.9	20.8	22.1	15.7	16.2	20.7	24.8
60-65	11.0	9.6	11.4	12.0	9.0	10.8	10.6	13.2
66-71	2.8	1.9	3.0	3.2	2.1	1.8	3.2	3.6
72 or more	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.3	1.6	1.2	2.0
Total	99.8%	100.1%	100.1%	99.9%	99.9%	100.1%	100.1%	99.8%
Median	50	50	50	51	50	50	50	52
Number	2,143	376	1,767	1,391	376	437	831	499

principals 62 in 100 spend 48 hours or more in regular and supplementary work; 74.1 percent of the supervising principals exceed the 48-hour week. If the standard for the workweek were taken at 40 hours then the picture is far more of an overload than the preceding comparisons indicate.

Almost 76 percent of the men supervising principals work 48 hours or more as compared with 68.0 percent of the women supervising principals.

Size of school system has an effect upon the length of the typical workweek. Table 32 shows that the proportions of supervising principals working 48 or more hours increases steadily as the school system size decreases—from 69 in 100 in the largest to 73 in 100 in the middle-size systems and to 80 in 100 in the smallest systems.

On the basis of years of experience as a principal the data suggest that those with the least experience spend more time in all school duties than those with the most experience. For example: the 48-hour plus workweek was reported by 79 in 100 of the supervising principals with less than 5

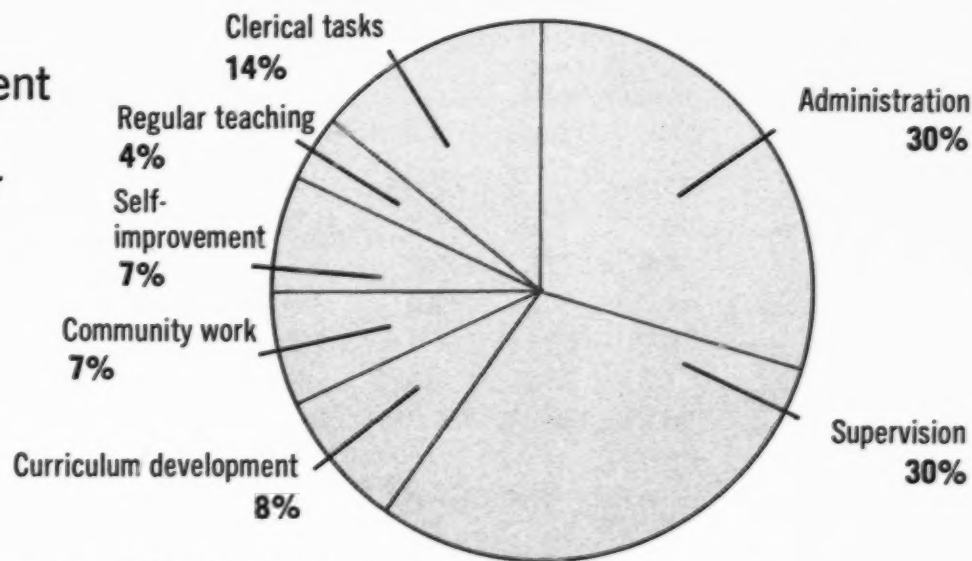
years of experience as principals; by 74 in 100 of those with 5-14 years of experience; by 69 in 100 of those with 15 or more years experience as principals. The medians of the three groups were respectively 52, 50, and 50 hours per week for all school and school-related duties.

Regionally the proportions reporting the 48-hour plus workweek were: Northeast, 69.2 percent; Southeast, 73.2 percent; Middle region, 73.6 percent; and West, 78.5 percent. The difference between the Northeast and the West is significant. Differences on the basis of academic preparation were not significant—each group approximated the general pattern.

Only general comparisons can be made with the earlier DESP surveys. The typical workweek for regular duties, as reported by all principals, was approximately 44 hours both in 1928 and in 1948; in 1958, 49 hours (as compared with 45 hours in 1968). Total for an average week was 53.9 hours in 1958 and 50 hours in 1968. The additional hours, above the regular school duties, averaged 4.9 hours in 1958 and 5 hours in 1968.

Figure VI

Average* percent
of Workweek
Given to Major
Duties by
Supervising
Principals
(Total sample
in 1968)



* Average refers to the mean. Based on Table 40 with self-improvement shown at 7%, the mean excluding those reporting none.

How do you divide your time among certain major categories?

In all of the DESP surveys since 1928 an attempt has been made to ascertain the proportion of the typical principal's time given to major aspects of the principalship. It has been recognized that most principals must make estimates since they do not keep, and cannot be expected to keep, an actual time diary of a typical week. Perhaps, therefore, it is surprising that the averages of the estimates have maintained considerable consistency from decade to decade.

At this point the reader should be reminded that the definitions of a teaching principal and a supervising principal have varied in the DESP surveys. In 1928 and in 1948 a *supervising* principal was defined as one with 75 percent or more of his time free from regular teaching duties and a *teaching* principal was one with *less than* 75 percent of his time free from assigned classroom work. In the 1958 survey the line was drawn at 50 percent or more of his regular school time free of assigned teaching duties for the supervising principal;

the *teaching* principal was one who had *less than* 50 percent of his time free for supervision, administration, and other duties.

Clearly these definitions were arbitrary, but necessary for tabulation purposes. An apparently sharp separation such as 75 percent or 50 percent did not prevent considerable near overlapping between the two types. For example: with the 50 percent line there would be a number who *would be free* from teaching for 49, 48, 47, etc. percent and on the other side a number who *would not be free* for 51, 52, etc. percent. Medians, means, and other statistical descriptions of the two types would consequently be "general" rather than "absolute" characterizations.

In the 1968 survey questionnaire the first question asked was "What is your official title?" and respondents were asked to check one of four categories: head teacher, teaching principal, principal, or supervising principal. In the final tabulations the head teachers and the teaching principals were placed in the "teaching principal" category. The other two groups were tabulated as "supervising principals."

Table 33. Percent of the Average Workweek Given to Regular Classroom Teaching

Percent of week	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
None.....	57.7%	2.0%	69.8%	70.2%	68.5%	74.7%	71.9%	65.9%	68.5%
1-19.....	19.5	2.5	23.2	22.5	25.6	20.8	19.0	24.2	27.1
20-39.....	4.4	9.9	3.2	3.5	2.1	2.8	3.2	3.7	2.9
40-59.....	4.7	17.3	2.0	2.0	2.1	1.8	1.9	2.9	1.2
60-79.....	6.7	32.1	1.1	1.2	.6	.0	2.1	1.8	.2
80 or more.....	7.2	36.2	.9	.7	1.3	.0	1.9	1.4	.0
Total.....	100.2%	100.0%	100.2%	100.1%	100.2%	100.2%	100.0%	99.9%	99.9%
Mean (including none) ...	0	70	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Median (excluding none)....	20	75	5	5	5	5	10	5	5
Number.....	2,194	393	1,801	1,414	387	395	374	543	489

Regular teaching duties. Respondents were asked to report the proportion of the average workweek devoted to *regular* teaching duties. In the total sample 57.7 percent reported that they had no regular teaching duties (a few called attention to demonstrations and substitute work which were not tabulated as regular teaching). Among the supervising principals 69.8 percent reported no assigned teaching duties. Table 33 reports certain aspects of the full tabulation.

Of those tabulated as teaching principals, 85.6 percent devoted 40 percent or more of their average workweek to regular teaching duties. In contrast, only 4.0 percent of those tabulated as supervising principals gave 40 percent or more of their regular time to teaching duties; less than 1 percent of the supervising principals gave 80 percent or more time to this type of work. (Reminder: those with the title of principal were tabulated with those who had the title of supervising principal.)

Regionally, Table 33 shows about 6 percent of the supervising principals giving as much as 40 percent of their time to teaching in the Southeast and in the Middle region; in the Northeast and the West less than 2 percent gave this much time to regular classroom teaching.

The size of school systems has an effect upon the amount of regular teaching duties reported by supervising principals. In the largest systems (25,000 or more pupils), 98 percent reported that less than 20 percent of their time was given to regular teaching; in the smallest school systems (300-2,999 pupils) only 88 percent gave less than 20 percent of their time to teaching.

On the basis of years of experience as a principal there were slight, but not significant, differences, among the categories.

In the 1958 survey the average percent of the workweek given by the entire group to classroom teaching was 10 percent (as

compared with 15 percent in 1968). For teaching principals in 1958 the average was 60 percent given to regular teaching (as compared with 65 percent in 1968). For supervising principals the average percent of the workweek given to regular teaching was 3 percent in 1958 (in 1968 it was 4 percent). In view of the somewhat different definitions used in 1958 and 1968 the average percents in the two surveys are remarkably close together. We may conclude that there has been no large or significant change during the past decade in the amount of time that the typical principal gives to regular classroom duties.

Clerical work. Through many decades a major "dead weight" upon the principalship has been the clerical burden of records, reports, and endless routine duties. Most of these tasks are essential, but they intrude heavily upon the time that most principals would like to give to management, instruction, and planning.

In 1958 the typical principal, in the group as a whole, gave 13 percent of the average workweek to clerical tasks. Teaching principals averaged 9 percent; supervising principals averaged 14 percent. The proportions ranged from 10 percent in the largest cities to 17 percent in the smallest places (roughly comparable to the 300-2,999 pupils group of the present survey).

As stated earlier, the typical principal in the 1958 survey averaged 13 percent of his workweek to clerical and other routine tasks. Table 34 shows also a 13 percent average (mean) for the entire sample in this 1968 survey. Teaching principals averaged 9 percent in both surveys; supervising principals averaged 14 percent in both years.

If we assume that any principal reporting 40 percent or more is confronted with an overwhelming clerical condition, then we note that, in the largest school systems, 2.4 percent are in this perplexing situation. In the middle-size systems we find 4.9

Table 34. Percent of the Average Workweek Given to Clerical Duties

Percent of week	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
None	7.7%	9.4%	7.3%	6.8%	9.0%	7.2%	6.2%	9.2%
1-19	64.9	77.4	62.2	62.8	60.2	63.5	63.9	58.1
20-39	23.3	12.5	25.7	25.6	25.6	26.9	25.0	25.6
40-59	3.5	.3	4.2	4.2	4.4	2.2	3.9	6.6
60-79	.6	.3	.7	.7	.8	.2	1.0	.6
80 or more	.0	.3	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0
Total	100.0%	100.2%	100.1%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%
Mean (including none)	13	9	14	14	13	13	14	15
Median (excluding none)	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Number	2,194	393	1,801	1,414	387	460	840	501

percent and in the smallest systems 7.2 percent. Stated another way, 7 in 100 supervising principals in systems with 300-2,999 pupils give 40 percent or more of their time to records, reports, and routine tasks. The difference between the largest and the smallest school systems is significant.

Administration. For most people, especially the general public, the primary job of the principal is to administer. Certainly, no school could be effective without someone to take care of the many tasks involved in organizing the program, making management decisions, formulating the general operating rules, coordinating the activities of pupils and teachers, and maintaining communication with other schools and the central office.

The average (mean) percent of the workweek given to administration by supervising principals was 30 percent in the 1928 survey; 29 percent in 1948; and 30 percent in 1958. Table 35 indicates that the proportion remains unchanged in 1968—at 30 percent.

If we assume that any principal giving 40 percent or more of his time to admin-

istration is working under an especially heavy administrative load, then we find in the total sample that 26.5 percent are in this situation in 1968. Among supervising principals 31.6 percent reported giving 40 percent or more of their time to administration. Men principals are more likely than women to report the relatively high administrative loads (33.6 percent and 24.9 percent respectively).

Tabulations by years of experience as a principal did not reveal any significant differences. Regional differences are noteworthy between the West and the remainder of the country. Only 28 in 100 supervising principals in the West reported administrative loads requiring 40 percent or more of the workweek; approximately one-third of the principals in the other sections reported the "40 percent plus" administrative loads. Tabulations on the basis of college preparation showed no significant differences.

Supervision and coordination of instruction. The committee which guided the preparation of the 1928 survey strongly recommended that supervising principals should increase the proportion of their time given

Table 35. Percent of Time During the Average Workweek Given to Administration

Percent of week	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
None	3.6%	15.5%	.9%	.6%	2.3%	1.3%	1.6%	.7%	.4%
1-19	30.7	67.7	22.6	22.6	23.0	19.0	26.8	21.9	23.3
20-39	39.3	14.0	44.7	43.4	49.9	47.9	40.4	42.3	48.3
40-59	19.9	2.3	23.7	24.9	19.4	23.0	24.8	25.8	21.1
60-79	5.5	.5	6.6	7.2	4.7	7.9	5.9	7.3	5.3
80 or more	1.1	.0	1.3	1.5	.8	1.0	.5	1.9	1.6
Total	100.1%	100.0%	99.8%	100.2%	100.1%	100.1%	100.0%	99.9%	100.0%
Mean (including none)	26	9	30	31	28	31	29	32	29
Median (excluding none)	25	10	30	30	25	30	28	30	25
Number	2,194	393	1,801	1,414	387	395	374	543	489

to supervision. The average (mean) percent of time in a typical workweek was 34 percent in 1928; 39 percent in 1948; and 35 percent in 1958. Table 36 shows that the percent is 26 percent in the total sample of the present survey.

If we assume that those principals giving less than 40 percent of their workweek to

supervision are below average expectations, then we find that 74.7 percent of the total sample can be so classified. Among teaching principals 98.7 percent give less than 40 percent of their time to supervision; among all supervising principals, 69.5 percent. Typically, women supervising principals give more time to supervision

Table 36. Percent of Time During the Average Workweek Given to Supervision

Percent of week	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
None	4.6%	20.6%	1.1%	1.0%	1.3%	.0%	1.3%	1.6%
1-19	27.2	67.7	18.3	19.4	14.4	14.3	16.5	25.0
20-39	42.9	10.4	50.1	50.7	47.5	53.3	47.9	50.7
40-59	20.5	1.3	24.7	23.6	28.7	24.5	27.8	19.6
60-79	4.3	.0	5.3	4.9	7.0	8.4	5.7	2.6
80 + ...	.5	.0	.5	.5	1.1	.4	.6	.6
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%	99.9%	99.8%	100.1%
Mean (including none)	26	7	30	29	32	31	31	27
Median (excluding none)	25	5	30	30	30	30	30	25
Number	2,194	393	1,801	1,408	382	460	840	501

Table 37. Percent of Time During the Average Workweek Given to Curriculum Development

Percent of week	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
None	18.9%	47.3%	12.7%	12.2%	14.2%	15.2%	12.5%	10.6%
1-19	74.2	51.9	79.1	79.3	78.6	78.9	78.0	81.2
20-39	6.6	.8	7.9	8.1	7.0	5.4	9.3	7.8
40-59	.2	.0	.4	.4	.3	.4	.2	.4
60-79	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0
80 or more	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0
Total	99.9%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%	100.1%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%
Mean (including none)	7	2	8	8	7	7	8	8
Median (excluding none)	10	5	10	10	10	5	10	10
Number	2,194	393	1,801	1,414	387	460	840	501

than men since the respective percents giving less than 40 percent of their time to supervision are 63.2 percent and 71.1 percent.

Supervising principals in the smallest school systems generally give less time to supervision than those in the larger school systems. In the smallest systems (300-2,999 pupils), 77 in 100 principals give less than 40 percent of their time to supervision; in the middle-size school systems (3,000-24,999 pupils), 66 in 100; and in the largest school systems (25,000 or more), 68 in 100.

Some regional differences are significant. In the West 65 in 100 supervising principals (64.8 percent) give less than 40 percent of their time to supervision. In contrast, in the Middle region 75 in 100 give less than 40 percent. The other two regions fall between the West and the Middle region, with 69.1 percent in the Northeast and 68.1 percent in the Southeast. The median percents of supervisory time during the workweek range from 25 percent in the Middle region to 30 percent in the Northeast, the Southeast, and in the West.

Curriculum development. In the 1958 sur-

vey the function of curriculum development was included within the definition of supervision. In the 1968 survey it was separated out for emphasis and to sharpen the term supervision. Some comparisons are possible, however, since the term "program development" was a separate item under the supervision heading in the 1958 study.

Table 37 shows the percent of the typical workweek given by principals to curriculum development, committees on courses of study, and related activities. Among the total sample the mean percent was 7 percent (mean including none); the median among those giving a definite proportion of time to this phase was 10 percent (median excluding none).

In the 1958 survey the mean percent of time given by teaching principals to program development was 2 percent; the mean for 1968, as shown in Table 37, is also 2 percent. Supervising principals gave 6 percent (mean) of their workweek to program development in 1958; the comparable percent for the present study is 8 percent.

The majority of principals, as shown in Table 37, fell at the 1-19 percent level.

WORKING CONDITIONS—TERMS, HOURS OF WORK, AND DISTRIBUTION OF TIME

Clearly teaching principals give less time to curriculum development than do supervising principals. The percents for men and women supervising principals are essentially the same. School system size tabulations did not reveal any significant differences.

Regionally we find that 84.1 percent of the supervising principals in the Northeast reported from 1-19 percent of their average week given to curriculum development. The corresponding percentages were 74.6 percent in the Southeast; 79.0 percent in the Middle region; and 78.7 percent in the West. The percent in the Northeast suggests relatively more curriculum participation in that area.

Tabulations on the basis of college preparation and in terms of years of experience as a principal did not reveal any significant differences.

Community work. On the average in 1958 the supervising principal gave 18 percent of his time to community work—that is, to public relations and to working with parents and civic groups. In the past decade, the average has apparently declined to 7 percent. The teaching principal, on the

average in 1958, reported 10 percent of the workweek given to community relations; the comparable percent for 1968 is 3 percent.

Perhaps the most striking statistic in Table 38 is that 13.8 percent of the total sample reported not giving any part of their typical workweek to community work. It may be that these principals considered such activities as "supplementary activities" (after school) rather than as part of the regular workweek devoted directly to school duties.

Tabulations, based on years of experience as a principal, did not show any significant differences. On the basis of college preparation 8.4 percent of those with the master's degree or higher preparation gave no time to community work during the regular workweek as compared with 15.3 percent among those with the A.B. or less. On a regional basis the differences were slight.

Self-improvement. Recently there has been an increasing belief that the principal's efforts to improve himself through reading, workshops, and similar activities should be considered a legitimate part of

Table 38. Percent of Time During the Average Workweek Given to Community Work

Percent of week	Supervising principals							
	Total sample	Teaching principals	School system enrollment					
			All	Men	Women	25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
None	13.8%	34.9%	9.2%	8.7%	10.9%	6.3%	8.9%	12.2%
1-19	81.4	63.8	85.3	86.2	81.7	85.0	85.6	84.8
20-39	4.6	1.3	5.3	4.7	7.3	8.5	4.9	3.0
40-59	.1	.0	.2	.2	.0	.0	.3	.0
60-79	.1	.0	.2	.1	.3	.2	.2	.0
80 or more	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.2%	99.9%	100.2%	100.0%	99.9%	100.0%
Mean (including none)	7	3	7	7	8	8	8	6
Median (excluding none)	5	5	5	5	10	10	6	5
Number	2,194	393	1,801	1,414	387	460	840	501

Table 39. Percent of Time During the Average Workweek Given to Self-Improvement

Percent of week	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
None	15.7%	30.0%	12.5%	12.8%	11.6%	11.4%	13.9%	15.5%	9.2%
1-19	82.1	69.2	85.0	85.1	84.5	85.0	83.5	82.9	88.3
20-39	2.2	.8	2.4	2.1	3.6	3.3	2.7	1.7	2.4
40-59	.0	.0	.1	.0	.3	.3	.0	.0	.0
60-79	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0
80 or more	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.1%	99.9%
Mean (including none) ...	6	4	6	6	7	7	7	6	6
Median (excluding none) ...	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Number	2,194	393	1,801	1,414	387	395	374	543	489

his workweek directly devoted to school affairs. For this reason the 1968 survey asked principals to report specifically on the percent of their time given to self-improvement activities (Table 39). This question was not asked in this way in the earlier DESP surveys.

The average amount of time given to improvement during the regular workweek—median about 5 percent (mean 6 percent) of the workweek of 50 hours—amounts to about 2.5 to 3 hours. While this

may not seem to be a large amount it is symbolic of the recognition of self-improvement as an essential part of the principal's regular duties.

Tabulations by size of school system, by experience as a principal, by sex, by geographical regions, and by amount of college preparation did not reveal any significant differences. Supervising principals, on the average, were able to allot more time to self-improvement activities than were teaching principals.

Table 40. Average Percent of Workweek Given to Various Functions in 1958 and in 1968

Functions	Supervising principals		Teaching principals	
	1968	1958	1968	1958
Regular teaching	4%	3%	65%	60%
Clerical tasks	14	14	9	9
Administration	30	30	9	11
Supervision	30	29	7	8
Curriculum development	8	6	2	2
Community work	7	18	3	10
Self-improvement activities	6	*	4	*
Total	99%	100%	99%	100%

* Self-improvement activities were not separated out in the 1958 survey.

Comparisons with 1958 survey. A general comparison can be made with the average percentages of time allotted to various functions in 1958 (Table 40).

In general, the average percentages reported in the two surveys are approximately the same. The only striking difference is the larger proportion of time given to community work in 1958 as compared with 1968 which may be explained by the increasing number of community specialists in recent years. Other differences may be caused by the somewhat different terminology used in the two surveys.

Ideally, how would you allot your time each week?

After reporting their estimates of how they actually allotted their time, each respondent was asked to indicate the allotments he would make in 1968 under ideal conditions (Table 41).

Supervising principals, according to these average percents, would like to give less time to clerical tasks and to administration and more time to supervision and to curriculum development. They would like also to allot more time to self-improvement during the regular workweek.

On the average, teaching principals would substantially reduce the time given

by them to regular teaching duties and to clerical tasks and then allot more time to administration, supervision, curriculum development, and self-improvement.

The average ideal allotment of the time of supervising principals shown in the 1958 survey did not differ greatly from the percentages given in Table 41 as the preferred allotments in 1968. The supervising principals of 1958 would have given slightly less time to curriculum development and more time to community work than the 1968 group. Teaching principals of 1958 would have cut down their regular teaching to 30 percent and given the time thus freed to supervision and to community work in somewhat larger proportions than the teaching principals in the 1968 survey.

What is the main block to attainment of the ideal time allotment?

There are, of course, usually several impediments to the attainment of an ideal allotment of work time. For practical reasons and emphasis principals were asked to report the main hindrance in 1968 (Table 42).

Among the sample group as a whole, lack of clerical help is the most serious hindrance to attainment of the preferred or ideal time allotment. Next most frequently reported was lack of administra-

Table 41. Average Actual and Average Ideal Allotments of Time During a Typical Workweek

Functions	Supervising principals		Teaching principals	
	Actual	Preferred	Actual	Preferred
Regular teaching.....	4%	4%	65%	41%
Clerical tasks.....	14	4	9	6
Administration.....	30	24	9	19
Supervision.....	30	40	7	16
Curriculum development.....	8	13	2	7
Community work.....	7	7	3	5
Self-improvement activities.....	6	9	4	7
Total.....	99%	101%	99%	101%

Table 42. Main Hindrance to Desired Use of Work Time

Hindrance	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
Lack of clerical help	24.8%	26.5%	24.4%	23.3%	28.5%	18.6%	24.6%	29.4%
Regular teaching	13.4	56.9	3.7	4.0	2.5	.2	3.3	7.3
Lack of administrative help	21.3	.7	25.9	26.0	25.4	36.3	24.1	19.4
Inadequate preparation for job	.7	1.2	.6	.6	.5	.2	.6	.8
Central office demands	16.9	3.5	19.9	20.3	18.4	21.2	21.7	15.6
Overcrowded building	5.7	3.5	6.1	6.2	6.0	5.5	5.7	7.5
Drives, etc.	.7	.7	.7	.7	.8	1.3	.6	.4
Welfare programs	2.2	.2	2.6	2.3	3.5	2.8	2.0	3.4
Parents' demands	2.6	.2	3.1	3.1	3.0	4.4	2.8	2.4
Lack of office space	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.0	.9	1.7	1.6
None	10.4	5.0	11.6	12.0	10.3	8.5	12.9	12.3
Total	100.1%	99.9%	100.0%	100.1%	99.9%	99.9%	100.0%	100.1%
Number	2,210	404	1,806	1,409	397	457	843	506

tive help (e.g. assistant principal) and third, the demands of the central office. Teaching principals—57 in 100—reported their regular teaching duties as the most serious hindrance and second, lack of clerical help.

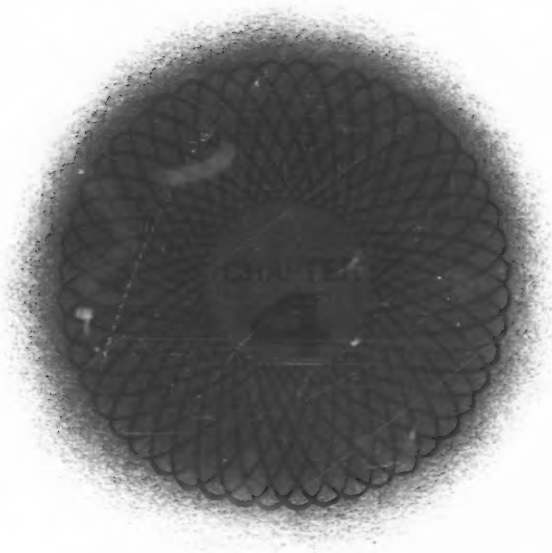
Tabulations by the size of school system indicate that the lack of clerical help among supervising principals is relatively more serious in the smaller systems than in the largest (25,000 or more pupils). Lack of administrative assistance is apparently more seriously felt in the largest systems than in the smaller ones. Central office demands were significantly more hindering in the school systems enrolling 3,000 or more pupils.

Tabulations by sex, experience as a principal, and college preparation did not show significant differences. Regionally, lack of administrative assistance was a serious hindrance in the Northeast and West. Lack of clerical help was reported in relatively

larger proportions in the Southeast than in the other areas.

Ten in 100 of the total sample reported that they had no hindrances. Among teaching principals, 5 in 100 had no serious impediments; supervising principals about 12 in 100 (11.6 percent) reported none.

In 1958 the most serious hindrance among all principals, reported by 27 in 100, was lack of clerical help. Regular teaching duties was second (15 percent); third, lack of administrative assistance (11 percent); and fourth, the demands of the central office (10 percent). Overcrowded buildings, lack of office space, and drives and campaigns were reported as hindrances by about double the proportions in 1958 as in 1968. Twelve in 100 principals in 1958 reported that they did not have any hindrances to their attainment of an ideal distribution of their time in a typical workweek. Clearly, the decade has been one of steady improvement.



THE PRINCIPAL AND ADMINISTRATION

THE GENERAL STATUS of the principal as an administrator may be revealed by specific questions with regard to his administrative role in the school system and by other questions that bear directly upon the individual school. Earlier DESP surveys of the status of the principalship—1928, 1948, and 1958—have stressed that the elementary school principal needed to have a clearly defined, responsible role both in the school system and in the individual school. Every survey also has pointed out that wide variations existed among and within school systems.

How would you characterize your administrative role in the school system?

Two questions were asked in exploring the principal's role in the school system: (a) what is your understanding of the administration's view (i.e. the central office) of the place of the elementary school principal in your school system? and (b) what part do you play in developing educational

policies for the school system as a whole? In each case the respondent was asked to examine a series of statements and to check the one that best described his situation.

General role in the school system. Briefly, the alternatives for the first question that principals were offered for checking were: (a) the principal is recognized publicly as the head of his school with considerable authority to plan, organize, and administer its educational program; (b) the principal is viewed as the administrative head of the school, assigned primarily to carry out the policies of the central office; he is given some encouragement to plan for his school community; and (c) the principal is neither encouraged nor authorized to proceed independently to alter his own school's program in any significant manner. These three descriptions sought to identify whether the principal was a leader, a supporter, or a follower. A similar question was asked in the earlier surveys.

Table 43. General Administrative Status of the Elementary School Principal in the School System, According to Principals

Role	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
Leader.....	51.2%	33.8%	55.0%	55.2%	54.5%	52.0%	61.3%	49.8%	58.3%
Supporter.....	42.4	49.4	40.8	40.5	41.8	43.8	36.1	43.7	38.9
Follower.....	6.5	16.8	4.2	4.3	3.6	4.3	2.5	6.5	2.8
Total.....	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	99.9%	100.1%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%
Number.....	2,261	411	1,850	1,439	411	400	393	556	501

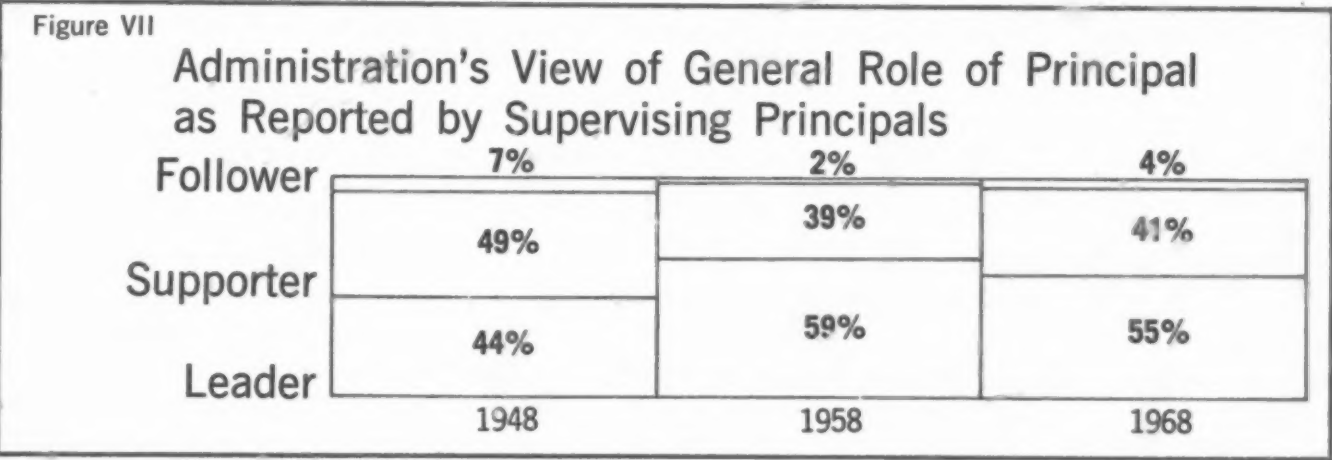
In the total sample, 51.2 percent thought that their central offices looked upon them as leaders; 42.4 percent thought they were in the role of supporters; and 6.5 percent, as followers. The corresponding percents in the 1958 survey were 54, 51, and 5. These percentages suggest little change in the general administrative status of principals as viewed by the central office—or, at least, as principals understand the central office's conception of the principalship.

More of the supervising principals viewed their roles as leaders than was true of teaching principals (Table 43). Nearly half of the teaching principals thought that the central office looked upon them as occupying a supporting role. In terms of percent fewer of the supervising principals reported a leadership role in 1968 (55 percent) as compared with 1958 (59 per-

cent); more of the teaching principals reported the leadership role in 1968 (33.8 percent) than was true a decade earlier (28 percent).

On a regional basis there is a somewhat higher proportion of supervising principals in the leadership role in the Southeast as compared with the other three regions. This was also true in 1958. Relatively few supervising principals in the Southeast and in the West interpreted their role as that of a follower.

Men and women supervising principals reported leadership roles in about the same proportions. Tabulations by experience as a principal and by college preparation showed only small differences. In the smallest school systems (300-2,999 pupils) there was a significantly larger proportion, as compared with systems of



3,000 or more pupils, who reported the "follower role" as apparently the central office's policy.

Participation in developing school system policy. A principal's administrative role in the school system is given more significant meaning if he feels that the central office consults with him in the formulation of school system policies. The alternatives offered to the respondents to show the extent of their participation in school system policy-making were stated:

- (a) I am not consulted. (Referred to in the text as "not consulted.")
- (b) I am asked to comment upon policies developed by the central office. (Referred to hereafter as "comment only.")
- (c) I am asked to comment upon policies developed by the central office and get some encouragement to propose new policies. (Referred to in the text as "some encouragement.")
- (d) I am not only encouraged to suggest new policies but am invited to present my views directly to the board of education or through the superintendent of schools. (Referred to hereafter as "invited participation.")

Among the sample as a whole, 13 percent reported that they were not consulted; 15.5

percent said that they might be asked for comments only; 44.4 percent believed that they were given some encouragement to suggest new policies; and 27.1 percent felt that they were invited to suggest and develop new policies. The comparable percents in 1958 were respectively: 5 percent, 11 percent, 18 percent, and 66 percent.

The differences between 1958 and 1968 indicate that principals have lost ground. Significant proportions (Table 44) have dropped back from "invited to participate" to "given some encouragement" to propose new policies. When linked with Table 43 the replies of the respondents, giving their appraisal of their roles, carry the strong implication that the principals in this 1968 survey have more feeling of insecurity than those who reported in the 1958 survey. More than this, the total picture may indicate that in current school system practices the role of the principal is moving away from "the higher regard for the principalship" which appeared to be on the increase between the 1948 and the 1958 surveys.

Supervising principals more than teaching principals are likely to be consulted on school system policies. Twenty-nine in 100 supervising principals are "invited to participate" (see full statement of the item

Table 44. The Principal's Role in the Development of Policies for the School System, According to Principals

Role	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
Not consulted.....	13.0%	25.5%	10.2%	9.9%	11.4%	21.0%	6.6%	6.7%
Comment only.....	15.5	16.9	15.2	15.3	14.6	15.3	15.3	14.8
Some encouragement.....	44.4	40.4	45.3	44.8	47.0	44.8	49.2	39.2
Invited to participate.....	27.1	17.2	29.3	30.0	27.0	19.0	28.9	39.2
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%	99.9%
Number.....	2,249	408	1,841	1,437	404	458	863	520

earlier in chapter) as compared with 17 in 100 among the teaching principals.

Size of school system makes for some significant differences. Twenty-one in 100 of the supervising principals in the largest systems (25,000 or more pupils) report that they are *not* consulted as compared with about 7 in 100 not being consulted in the school systems with fewer than 25,000 pupils. Looking at the other end of the scale, 39 in 100 supervising principals in systems with fewer than 3,000 pupils report that they are invited to propose and develop new policies as compared with only 19 in 100 in the largest systems. These differences remind us of one of the problems of bigness.

Tabulations on the basis of years of experience as a principal showed no significant differences. Those with an M.A. or higher preparation were more likely to be "given some encouragement" as compared with those who had the A.B. and lesser preparation; yet those with the lesser training were more likely "to be invited to participate" than those with the higher preparation.

On a regional basis the supervising principals in the West were clearly more likely to receive "some encouragement" in the development of new policies than the principals in the other regions—more than half of the West placed themselves in this category.

What is your administrative role in the individual school?

Three questions were used in obtaining a general idea of the principal's administrative role in the individual school: (a) selecting the staff of the school; (b) evaluating the work of the teachers; and (c) preparing the school budget.

Selecting the staff of the school. Since it is important for the faculty of a school to work as a team and since the principal is usually held responsible for the quality

of the education in his school, it seems reasonable to argue that the principal must have an important role in selecting the school's faculty. Few persons would give the principal exclusive authority nor can a very good case be made for placing exclusive authority in the central office. The problem calls for joint action on a high professional plane.

Respondents were offered four alternatives and asked to check the one which best described their role in selecting the faculty:

- (a) All assignments are made by the central office; I have nothing to say in the selection of teachers. (Referred to in the text as "nothing to say.")
- (b) I can ask for the type of person needed and accept or reject from among several recommended by the central office. (Referred to in the text as "accept-reject among candidates.")
- (c) I am expected to outline the qualifications of each teacher needed, to examine the personnel records in the central office, to interview applicants, and to recommend for assignment the applicants I consider qualified. (Referred to in the text as "examine and recommend.")
- (d) I employ the teachers without the assistance of a central office personnel service. (Referred to in the text as "employ without the central office.")

In the sample as a whole, 38.5 percent reported that they had nothing to say about the assignment of teachers since it was all done by the central office; 32.7 percent had authority to accept or reject from among several recommended by the central office; 25.2 percent stated their needs, examined applicants, and recommended those to be assigned; and 3.6 percent reported that they employed teachers without the assistance of the central office. The comparable percents in the 1958 sur-

vey were respectively: 45 percent, 37 percent, 17 percent, and 1 percent. The changes in percent over the past decade suggest that principals as a group have been given increased authority with respect to the selection of teachers. Increasingly, they seem to be participating in the selection process and sharing more and more with the central office the process of selecting the faculty of the individual school.

Table 45 indicates that there are significant differences on the basis of the size of the school system. In the largest systems (25,000 or more pupils) relatively more supervising principals have nothing to say about the assignment of teachers to their schools as compared with supervising principals in the smaller systems. In the smallest systems (300-2,999 pupils) substantially larger proportions of the supervising principals have the opportunity to state the qualifications, examine applicants, and recommend those to be assigned. This level of operation is the one most likely to be supported by the administrative theory.

On a regional basis the supervising principals in the Southeast and in the West appear to occupy more favorable positions than principals in the other two

areas. Relatively more men supervising principals report more authority than the women supervising principals. Tabulations by experience as a principal and by level of college preparation revealed no significant differences.

A special question, not included in the earlier surveys, attempted to discover the role of the faculty of the school in helping to fill vacancies. The question asked: "Do the teachers in your school share in the selection of new faculty members?"

In the total sample 4.3 percent answered "yes" and 95.7 percent said "no." Supervising principals revealed a small, but not significantly larger percent answering affirmatively. Similarly the affirmative reply was more frequent among supervising principals in the cities over 3,000 in pupil enrollment; among those with more than 15 years experience as a principal; among men supervising principals; and among those with the M.A. or higher college preparation. But the sizes of these differences give no assurance of significance. On a regional basis the affirmative percent was significantly higher in the Southeast than it was in the other three regions.

Evaluating the work of teachers. Traditionally the principal's authority for evaluating the work of classroom teachers has been

Table 45. The Role of the Principal in Selecting the Faculty

Role	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
Nothing to say.....	38.5%	60.8%	33.5%	31.1%	41.9%	46.8%	29.7%	28.2%
Accept-reject among candidates.....	32.7	25.0	34.4	33.8	36.8	37.2	38.8	24.7
Examine and recommend.....	25.2	12.5	28.0	30.4	19.6	14.4	27.8	40.3
Employ without central office.....	3.6	1.7	4.0	4.7	1.7	1.5	3.7	6.8
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%
Number.....	2,249	408	1,841	1,433	408	457	866	518

symbolized by the teacher rating form. These instruments have varied widely in detail, in alleged accuracy, and in their effect upon the teacher's status and salary. Considerable controversy has raged around the type of evaluation, its frequency of use, the competency of those doing the rating, and the effect a rating should have upon the individual teacher. For administrative purposes most rating forms are today used primarily to determine whether or not a teacher should be reassigned, given tenure in the school system, or released from employment. In view of these purposes many school systems apply formal rating each year to the beginner during the first years of employment and, after tenure or continuous em-

ployment has been obtained, the formal rating is applied at intervals of three to five years.

A few principals use rating forms as a basis for checking the general instructional situation—merely as a rudimentary form of supervision. The results are shown to the teacher and discussed as necessary so as to bring the teacher's views and the principal's policies within some degree of harmony. The results are not usually reported to the central office and rarely have any effect upon the teacher's salary and status. This general plan was not explored.

Whatever the pattern of the formal rating system used with beginning teachers, almost 76 in 100 (75.9 percent) of the total sample report that the rating is made an-

Table 46. The Principal's Role with Regard to the Formal Rating of Beginning Teachers

Type of rating plan	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
Detailed rating of teacher characteristics									
Annually.....	28.7%	8.4%	33.3%	32.9%	34.5%	35.3%	16.3%	36.3%	41.6%
Every few yrs.....	.9	.9	1.0	.7	1.7	.5	1.5	1.0	.8
General rating of performance									
Annually.....	16.0	16.2	16.0	15.9	16.3	14.7	16.5	18.3	14.1
Every few yrs.....	.3	.0	.3	.4	.0	.2	.5	.5	.0
Both detailed and general									
Annually.....	31.2	18.5	34.1	33.8	35.0	40.9	31.0	31.9	33.3
Every few yrs.....	.4	.5	.4	.3	.7	.0	.3	.3	.8
Various combinations of detail—general and annual and periodic.....	.4	.2	.5	.4	.4	.5	.5	.4	.4
No formal rating.....	22.1	55.3	14.6	15.5	11.3	7.8	33.5	11.2	9.0
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%	100.2%	99.9%	99.9%	99.9%	100.1%	99.9%	100.0%
Number.....	2,318	427	1,891	1,468	423	408	400	573	510

nually. Twenty-nine in 100 use a detailed rating of teacher characteristics; 16 in 100 use a general rating of performance; and 31 in 100 use both a detailed rating of characteristics and a general rating of performance. Twenty-two in 100 said that they had no formal rating plan for beginning teachers.

More than half—55.3 percent—of the teaching principals reported that they made no formal ratings of beginning teachers. Nearly 15 in 100 (14.6 percent) of the supervising principals said that no formal rating plan was used with beginning teachers. Men and women supervising principals showed no significant differences as to the type of rating plans used (Table 46).

The regional distributions show a significant difference between the Southeast and the other three regions. For example, 33.5 percent of the supervising principals in the Southeast do not make formal ratings of beginning teachers as compared with about 10 percent of the supervising principals in the other three regions. In contrast with the Southeast, substantial numbers of principals in the other three regions make detailed, annual reports on the characteristics of beginning teachers.

On the basis of the size of school systems, the smaller the system the greater the possibility that no formal rating of beginning teachers would be made by supervising principals. Years of experience as a principal and college prepara-

Table 47. The Principal's Role with Regard to the Formal Rating of Continuing Teachers

Type of rating plan	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
Detailed rating of teacher characteristics									
Annually	16.5%	4.9%	19.1%	20.5%	14.2%	20.1%	11.8%	19.4%	23.7%
Every few yrs.	4.6	1.4	5.3	5.1	6.1	4.7	2.3	5.6	8.0
General rating of performance									
Annually	16.5	15.5	16.8	16.6	17.5	19.1	14.0	18.2	15.5
Every few yrs.	2.8	.5	3.3	3.3	3.3	2.5	3.5	4.0	3.1
Both detailed and general									
Annually	20.6	15.0	21.8	23.0	18.0	26.7	20.8	19.9	21.0
Every few yrs.	4.1	1.9	4.7	4.6	5.0	2.5	4.5	5.8	5.3
Various combinations of detail—general and annual and periodic	.9	.0	1.2	1.3	.5	.4	.8	1.8	1.2
No formal rating	34.0	60.9	27.9	25.7	35.5	24.0	42.5	25.5	22.2
Total	100.0%	100.1%	100.1%	100.1%	100.1%	100.0%	100.2%	100.2%	100.0%
Number	2,318	427	1,891	1,468	423	408	400	573	510

tion showed a few small, but not significant, differences.

A comparison of Tables 46 and 47 shows that the continuing teacher (usually one on tenure) is not likely to be rated as frequently as the beginning teacher. Thirty-four percent of the total sample of principals said that they did not formally rate the continuing teacher; only 22.1 percent reported no formal rating of beginning teachers.

In the total sample only 53.6 percent reported annual ratings of continuing teachers as compared with 75.9 percent making annual ratings of beginning teachers. Almost 61 percent of the teaching principals (Table 47) made no formal ratings of experienced teachers (55.3 percent so reported for beginning teachers).

Fifty-eight percent of the supervising principals reported making annual ratings of continuing teachers (83.4 percent made annual ratings of beginning teachers). Men and women supervising principals had similar percent distributions among the various plans, except that women principals are less likely to make formal ratings.

On a regional basis the supervising principals in the Southeast are least likely to make formal ratings of continuing teachers (as was true for beginning teachers). The percents indicate that the general rating

patterns followed must be similar in all of the regions, outside of the Southeast.

On the basis of school system enrollments, the percents indicate that the smaller the school system the more likely an annual type of rating plan will be used. Contrariwise, periodic ratings every few years are more likely to be practiced in the larger school systems.

Years of experience as a principal and college preparation tabulations did not show significant differences. Undoubtedly, the most influential factors are the regional practices and the size of school systems.

Direct comparisons with the 1958 survey cannot be made since the questions asked on rating were quite different. The percents for the total groups, however, suggest that an average of 16 percent of the principals did not make formal ratings in 1958 as compared with an estimated 28 percent in 1968 (average of no rating for beginning teachers and no rating for continuing teachers). Formal rating by principals of continuing (presumably experienced) teachers may be becoming an obsolete practice.

Preparing the individual school budget. The question asked on budget preparation was designed to ascertain the principal's general role in connection with the budget of the individual school. Respondents were

Table 48. The Principal's Role in Preparing the Budget of the Individual School

Role	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
Nothing to do.....	35.2%	52.3%	31.4%	30.1%	36.1%	43.6%	26.0%	29.6%
Make recommendations only.....	40.8	34.3	42.3	42.6	41.1	43.9	43.1	39.5
Plan, recommend, and defend.....	23.9	13.4	26.3	27.3	22.7	12.5	30.9	30.9
Total.....	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Number.....	2,297	417	1,880	1,462	418	472	877	531

asked to examine three choices and to check the one which most nearly described their own situation. The choices were:

- (a) I have nothing to do with the budget; it is made by the central office. (Referred to in the text as "nothing to do.")
- (b) I report in writing on the general needs of the school, but the budget decisions are made in the central office. (Referred to in the text as "make recommendations only.")
- (c) The teachers and I are expected to prepare budget proposals based upon the program we plan to follow. Our recommendations are carefully considered; I have an opportunity to explain and defend our plans before those who make the final decisions. (Referred to in the text as "plan, recommend, and defend.")

The report of the 1958 survey on budget authority of principals offered the comment (as compared with 1948): "the trend in the direction of more participation by the supervising principal seems clear." The percents of supervising principals reporting that they "had nothing to do with the budget" dropped from 52 percent in 1948 to 22 percent in 1958—but it rose to 31.4 percent in the present survey. On the favorable side, the proportion of supervising principals apparently having a significant part in planning the budget was 12 percent in 1958 and is 26.3 percent in the 1968 survey. These are approximations since the same wording was not used both years (Table 48).

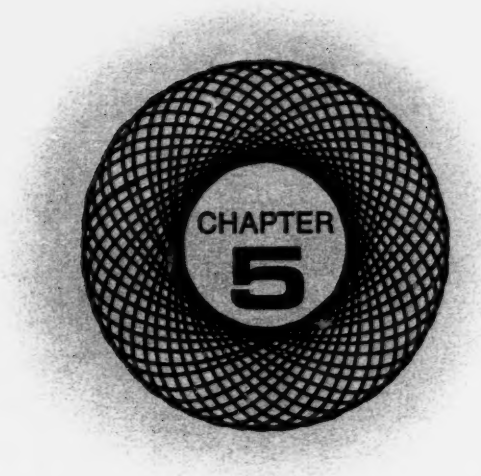
In 1958 the "nothing to do" role was reported by 35 percent of the teaching principals; in 1968 the comparable percent is 52.3 percent. Five percent of the teaching principals in 1958 might be characterized as having some significant part in planning the budget as compared with 13.4 percent in 1968. Taking into account the percents reported both for teaching principals and

for supervising principals in the two surveys, it appears that the participation of the principal in planning and defending the budget of the individual school has made a substantial gain. Yet—even today—approximately one-third of the total sample believe that they have little to say about the budgets of their schools.

The size of the school system apparently is an important factor in determining the budgetary role of the supervising principal. In the largest systems 43.6 percent thought they had "nothing to do" as compared with 29.6 percent in the smallest systems; only 12.5 percent in the largest systems believed that their roles were "to plan, recommend, and defend" as compared with 30.9 percent in the smaller places. This may be further evidence of the restrictive influence of bigness.

The tabulations on the basis of sex indicate that men supervising principals occupy a bit more favorable position than women with regard to planning the school budget. Years of experience as a principal and level of college preparation do not show any significant differences. Tabulations by geographic regions indicate that supervising principals in the Northeast participate significantly more in budget planning than do the supervising principals in the other three regions. The least favorable position exists among the principals in the Southeast area where 42 in 100 believe that they have "nothing to do with the budget."

For several decades the NEA Department of Elementary School Principals has recommended through its surveys that principals should be given increasing leadership opportunities. Between 1928 and 1958 the surveys showed significant gains. The changes in percents between 1958 and 1968 suggest that progress may be moving onto a plateau. Will the principalship improve its administrative status in the next decade?



ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

ONLY a few decades ago the term “elementary school” was understood by many to mean Grades 1 through 8. In recent years the typical school has become an organization from the kindergarten or Grade 1 through Grade 6. No fixed limits were set in the present study since the questionnaire permitted principals to report any combination of grades between prekindergarten and Grade 12. The expectation, however, was that the “typical school” would fall within the commonly accepted limits.

Five aspects of school organization will be dealt with in the present chapter: (a) the number of schools administered by the principal; (b) the grades supervised; (c) the vertical and horizontal grade organization; (d) the total enrollment; and (e) the number of full-time teachers.

How many separate schools are under your direction?

Traditionally the policy of most boards of education has been to appoint one per-

son to head each elementary school. If a school was relatively small this person might be called a head teacher or a teaching principal. Although in a few communities principals have been asked to administer two or even more schools, the practice has not been widespread. The present survey supports this statement.

Among the sample as a whole, 12.4 percent administer two or more schools. In 1958 the comparable figure was 13 percent. Only 2.5 percent of the teaching principals handle two or more schools; in 1958 the comparable figure was 2 percent. Just under 15 percent of the supervising principals are assigned two or more schools; in 1958 the percent was 15 percent. These percents suggest that during the past decade the practice of assigning two or more schools to a principal has not increased.

On the basis of the size of the school system Table 49 shows that among supervising principals the practice of “one school, one principal” is most character-

Table 49. Number of Schools the Principal Administers

Number of schools	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
One	87.7%	97.4%	85.5%	86.3%	82.5%	92.2%	86.6%	77.5%
Two	8.8	2.1	10.3	9.2	13.9	6.9	10.0	13.7
Three	2.0	.2	2.4	2.7	1.7	.8	2.0	4.5
Four or more	1.6	.2	1.9	1.8	1.9	.0	1.4	4.3
Total	100.1%	99.9%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%
Number	2,317	426	1,891	1,468	423	475	883	533

istic of the largest school systems (25,000 or more pupils). On the other hand, in the smallest systems (300-2,999 pupils) 22.5 percent administer two or more schools. The size of the individual schools is undoubtedly the governing factor in the differences in practice between large and small school systems.

On a regional basis the practice of administering two or more schools is significantly more characteristic in the Northeast area—25.9 percent of the supervising

principals—than it is, for example, in the Southeast with only 3.3 percent. The Middle region with 17.5 percent clearly differs from the West which shows only 11.0 percent of the supervising principals administering two or more schools. In general, similar regional differences were found in 1958.

Tabulations on the basis of years of experience as a principal and level of college preparation did not show significant differences.

Figure VIII

Grades in Elementary School Organization (Total sample)

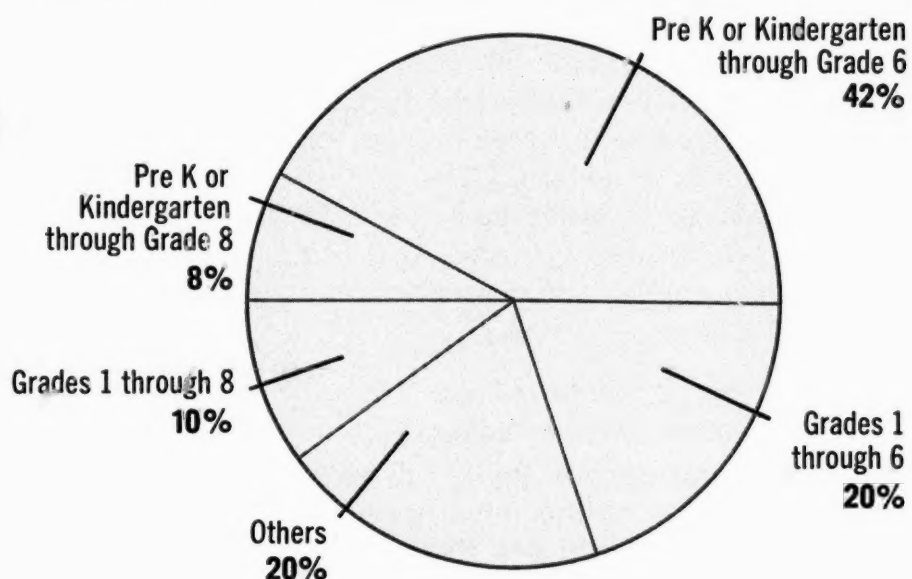


Table 50. Grades Supervised by Elementary School Principals

Pattern	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
PreK-6.....	2.6%	.9%	3.0%	2.5%	4.7%	5.9%	.0%	2.4%	3.7%
K-6.....	39.2	18.9	43.8	43.0	46.3	47.5	9.0	61.5	48.0
1-6.....	20.4	27.1	18.9	17.3	24.3	10.8	46.0	6.3	18.2
PreK-8.....	.4	.0	.5	.6	.2	.5	.3	.9	.4
K-8.....	7.3	4.5	7.9	8.4	6.1	11.8	.5	12.4	5.5
1-8.....	9.6	23.1	6.6	7.8	2.4	1.5	18.0	3.1	5.5
K(1)-3.....	.9	2.1	.6	.6	.5	.7	.0	.5	1.0
Others.....	19.6	23.3	18.8	19.8	15.4	21.3	26.3	12.8	17.6
Total.....	100.0%	99.9%	100.1%	100.0%	99.9%	100.0%	100.1%	99.9%	99.9%
Number.....	2,314	424	1,890	1,467	423	408	400	572	510

What grades are taught under your direction?

The 1958 survey reported that 78 percent of the principals administered schools extending either from the kindergarten or first grade through Grade 6. The comparable percent in the present 1968 survey is 59.6 percent (adding in the prekindergarten, not identified in 1958, raises the total to 62.2 percent). Kindergarten or Grade 1 through Grade 8 totaled 20 percent in 1958; this combination totals 16.9 percent in 1968 (or 17.3 percent if prekindergarten through Grade 8 is added.) The "others item" in Table 50 includes such patterns as Grades 4-6, Grades 1-7, and, in a few cases, schools which included one or more high school grades.

How would you characterize the basic organization in your school?

During the past decade there has been increased attention to the basic patterns of grade organization. In this 1968 survey an attempt was made to discover the extent to which various patterns are in use.

Similar questions were not asked in the earlier DESP surveys.

Vertical organization. This term has reference particularly to the single grade pattern, the multigraded plan, and to the nongraded plan. Traditionally for many years the typical urban pattern has been the graded one. Small rural schools have for many years been characterized by the multigraded pattern. The nongraded plan is comparatively recent in origin since it has been used and discussed actively during the past decade.*

Table 51 presents the percents for the entire sample—both teaching and supervising principals. The separate percent distributions for teaching principals and for supervising principals did not show significant differences between the two groups. Among supervising principals a few differences emerged.

On the basis of size of the school system, the nongraded plan was reported by larger percents of supervising principals in the largest systems (25,000 or more pupils) and declined steadily with decreas-

Table 51. Percent of Principals Using Various Vertical Patterns in the First Six Grade Levels of Their Schools

Types of patterns	Grade levels					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Graded	83.9%	83.8%	85.0%	91.1%	91.2%	91.3%
Multigraded	4.9	5.5	5.4	5.3	5.7	5.4
Nongraded	11.2	10.7	9.6	3.6	3.1	3.3
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Number	2,067	2,065	2,061	2,048	2,023	1,898

ing school system enrollment. This situation held true for Grade 1 through Grade 3; beginning with Grade 4 the distributions among the various patterns were essentially the same for all school system sizes.

Tabulations on the basis of years of experience as a principal did not reveal any significant differences. Women supervising principals reported the nongraded plan in Grades 1-3 with significantly greater frequency than men supervising principals. The proportion of supervising principals reporting the nongraded plan in Grades 1-3 was significantly larger in the Southeast and the Middle region than it was in the Northeast and in the West. Tabulations based on the college preparation of the supervising principals did not reveal any significant differences in the proportions using the various organizational patterns.

In general, the distributions appeared "to settle down" in essentially the same percents for each vertical pattern beginning with Grade 4—regardless of the basis or categories used in the tabulations.

Horizontal organization. The questionnaire identified three patterns of horizontal organization: (a) the self-contained classroom; (b) departmentalized programs; and (c) team teaching. Under the self-contained classroom each teacher teaches all or most of the curriculum program (although there are many variations in which teachers exchange classes depending

upon their interests and skills). The departmentalized program implies either that the children or the teachers move from room to room for specific subjects (although there are many variations such as "block" or grouping of subject areas as distinguished from the specific subject plan which characterizes many secondary schools). Team teaching also has many variations but seeks primarily to provide opportunity for a group of teachers to plan together for one or more grade levels and to utilize the special interests and skills of each teacher in the planning group.

The questionnaire made no effort to define each pattern, either for the vertical or for the horizontal patterns, since there are so many variations on each pattern. For this reason Tables 51 and 52 represent the judgment of the respondents as they understand the meaning of each pattern. Undoubtedly, actual observation of the individual schools would show that presumably distinct patterns, such as departmentalization, have been adjusted in terms of building facilities, the preparation and experience of the classroom teachers, and other factors.

Table 52 gives the percent distribution for the total sample, including both teaching principals and supervising principals. The separate total distributions for the two groups did not reveal any large or significant differences. A few significant dif-

Table 52. Percent of Principals Using Various Horizontal Patterns in the First Six Grade Levels of Their Schools

Types of patterns	Grade levels					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Self-contained.....	96.6%	96.1%	95.2%	88.3%	78.9%	71.3%
Departmentalized.....	.9	1.2	2.1	8.5	16.4	23.0
Team teaching.....	2.5	2.7	2.6	3.3	4.7	5.7
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%	99.9%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%
Number.....	2,067	2,063	2,057	2,056	2,040	1,927

ferences emerged when the supervising principals were tabulated under various categories, such as size of school systems.

Table 52 shows a tendency for the self-contained classroom to give way before departmentalization beginning with Grade 4. Team teaching has not, as yet, gained widespread use; the relatively small percents for this pattern indicate that it is most likely to be used in Grade 4 through Grade 6.

In the schools of supervising principals the self-contained classroom was reported by 95 percent to 97 percent as the prevailing pattern in Grades 1 through 3 regardless of the basis of tabulation (e.g. size of system, experience of principals, etc.). Departmentalization appeared in significantly larger proportions in Grade 4 but especially in Grades 5 and 6. Supervising principals reported departmentalization with greatest frequency in the smallest school systems (300-2,999 pupils)—21.0 percent for Grade 5 as compared with 13.1 percent for Grade 5 in the largest school systems (25,000 or more pupils). At the Grade 6 level departmentalization was reported by 32.1 percent of the supervising principals in the smallest school systems as compared with 16.9 percent in the largest systems.

No significant differences appeared between the practices of men and women supervising principals, between the geo-

graphic regions, on the basis of the experience as principals, or level of college preparation. Clearly the self-contained classroom is still the prevailing pattern in Grades 1 through 6; its nearest rival is departmentalization usually in Grades 4 through 6 (and largely in Grades 5 and 6).

What is the total regular enrollment under your direction?

In the total sample the median enrollment is 490. In schools under teaching principals the median enrollment is 175; under supervising principals it is 540. Among the women supervising principals the median of 556 is somewhat larger than the median of 539 in schools under men supervising principals (Table 53).

The largest school, enrolling 3,100 pupils, was reported by a supervising principal in the Northeast region; the smallest, in the Middle region, enrolled 17 pupils. In the 1958 survey the median enrollment of all schools reporting was 482; of teaching principals, 218; of supervising principals, 536. These medians suggest that there has been relatively little change in the size of the typical school during the past decade.

Regional tabulations for the present 1968 survey show that supervising principals in the Northeast are most likely to report schools with the larger enrollments (median 608); in the Southeast the median

Table 53. Enrollment in Elementary Schools

Number of pupils	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
Below 100	5.1%	23.5%	1.0%	.9%	1.4%	.0%	.6%	2.7%
100-399	32.9	70.2	24.7	26.0	20.0	14.2	22.8	37.2
400-699	38.9	5.6	46.4	45.3	48.5	39.2	52.2	43.3
700-999	17.2	.4	20.9	20.9	20.5	29.8	20.5	13.4
1,000 or more	5.8	.2	7.1	6.4	9.7	17.0	4.0	3.6
Total	99.9%	99.9%	100.1%	100.0%	100.1%	100.2%	100.1%	100.2%
Median	490	175	540	539	556	674	542	450
Number	2,272	413	1,859	1,444	415	470	869	520

enrollment is considerably smaller (median 500). In the Northeast only 29.4 percent of the schools enrolled fewer than 500 pupils; in the Southeast, 49.6 percent were below 500 in size (in the Middle region 45.6 percent and in the West, 37.4 percent).

Supervising principals with the A.B. or less in preparation reported a median of 420 pupils as compared with 551 pupils in schools under those with the M.A. and higher degrees. Principals with less than 5 years experience as principals were likely to report smaller school enrollments (51.7 percent below 500 pupils) than those with 5 years or more experience (less than 40 percent with fewer than 500 pupils).

How many full-time teaching positions are under your direction?

In the 1958 survey the median number of teaching positions reported by the entire group of principals was 16; the comparable median in 1968 is 18 (Table 54). The teaching principals' group in 1958 had a median of 7; in 1968 the median for teaching principals is 6. The supervising principals' group showed a median of 18 teaching positions in 1958; the median for this group in the present survey is 20.

Tabulations by size of the school systems show that the schools in the largest school systems are likely to be larger than in the smaller systems (Table 53), consequently

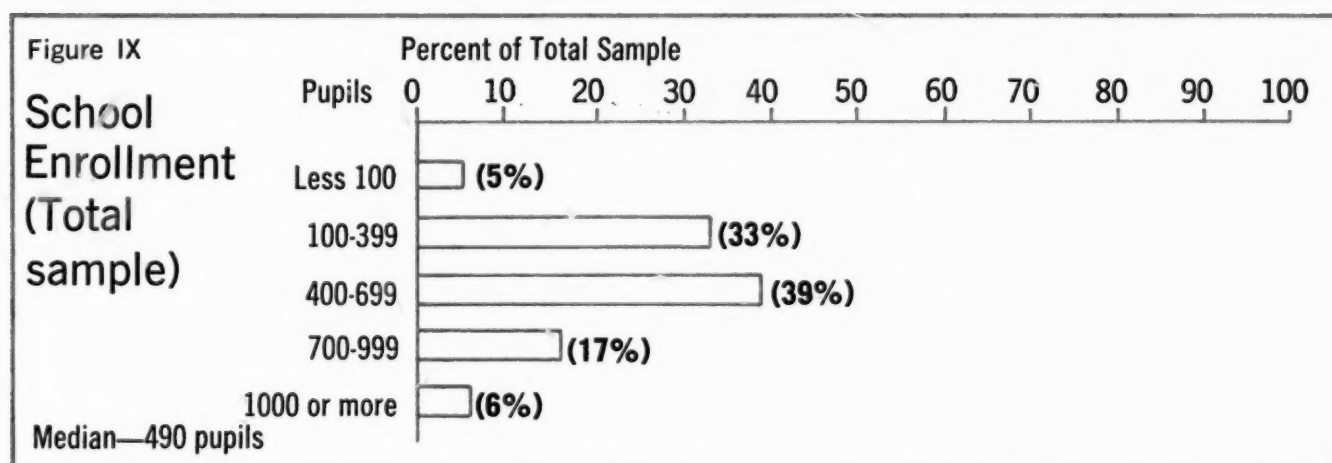


Table 54. Number of Full-time Classroom Positions in Elementary Schools

Number of positions	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
Below 5	7.3%	34.4%	1.2%	.9%	2.4%	.2%	.9%	2.6%
5-14	30.2	59.8	23.6	24.3	21.4	15.3	23.5	31.2
15-24	38.7	4.3	46.4	46.8	45.3	41.1	51.4	43.1
25-34	16.1	1.0	19.5	18.7	22.8	27.3	16.8	17.2
35-44	5.2	.0	6.3	6.6	5.3	10.5	5.2	4.3
45-54	1.8	.0	2.2	2.2	2.2	3.7	1.9	1.6
50 or more	.6	.5	.6	.6	.4	2.0	.2	.0
Total	99.9%	100.0%	99.8%	100.1%	99.8%	100.1%	99.9%	100.0%
Median	18	6	20	20	20	22	19	18
Number	2,284	418	1,866	1,454	412	465	872	529

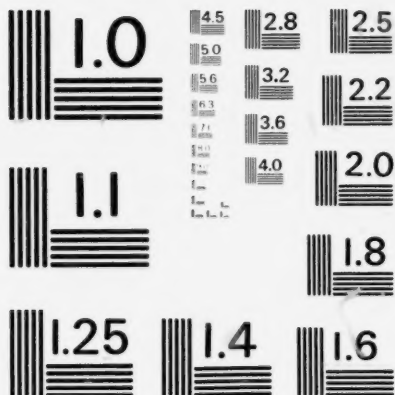
the largest systems report relatively more teaching positions per school. The largest school systems (Table 54) show a median of 22 full-time teaching positions; 43.5 percent of the schools in these systems have 25 or more teachers. In the smallest school systems only 23.1 percent of the principals reported 25 or more teaching positions; the median of this school system size is 18.

On a regional basis the median of the number of teaching positions under supervising principals is largest in the Northeast at 23 (the median enrollment also is largest in this geographic area). The median number of positions in the other regions: 20 in the West; 19 in the Southeast; and 18 in the Middle region. An approximation of the teacher-pupil ratio may be obtained by dividing the median enrollment by the median number of teaching positions. This ratio for the total sample is 27; in the Northeast and the Southeast it is 26; and in

the Middle region and the West it is 28.

A better measure of teacher load, namely class size, has been reported regularly for a number of years by the NEA Research Division. In school systems of 3,000 or more pupils (Strata 1 through 6) there was a decline between 1952-53 and 1964-65 from an average (mean) of 31.9 pupils to an average of 29.3 pupils per classroom in elementary schools. The averages run consistently higher in the larger school systems (12,000 or more pupils) than in the smaller systems (3,000 to 11,999 pupils).† In the Division's report on the status of the American public school teacher during 1965-66 the median class size reported by a sample of classroom teachers was 29.0 pupils per classroom in elementary schools.‡ The teacher-pupil ratios in the present survey are somewhat smaller than the class size figures reported by the NEA Research Division in recent years.

0965



MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART
NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A



SCHOOL RESOURCES AVAILABLE TO THE PRINCIPAL

CHAPTER III reported the estimates of the time given by principals to their major functions in a typical workweek, how they would like to improve their time allotments to various duties, and what they consider to be the primary blocks to the best use of their time. One in 4 principals reported that the main block to most effective use of their time was the lack of clerical help; 1 in 5 said that they lacked administrative assistance.

The present chapter will summarize several aspects of the resources available to principals: (a) the general office facilities; (b) the amount and type of secretarial help; (c) the status of the assistant principal; and (d) the types of specialized help available.

How would you describe your office?

The 1928 survey observed that the principal's office was a physical device just as essential in school management as the blackboard was to the teacher's instruc-

tional efforts. The report presented data to show that many principals in the late 1920's were laboring under serious office limitations. The situation in 1968 suggests that similar handicaps continue to exist.

Among the total sample slightly less than half (49.8 percent) report that their offices are exceptionally good or satisfactory (Table 55). This situation was true of only 28.6 percent of the teaching principals. In fact, 34 in 100 teaching principals report that they have no real offices. Among supervising principals 54.6 percent report exceptionally good or satisfactory offices; only 4.1 percent did not have a real office.

In addition to those who did not have a real office another "forgotten man" group are those reporting that they just have room for a desk. Obviously, such offices could not be satisfactory either in terms of space or equipment. Twelve in 100 of the total sample are in the "desk room only" category; 13.6 percent of the teaching principals and 11.8 percent of the

Table 55. How Principals Describe Their Offices and Facilities

Description	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
Exceptionally good.....	15.6%	6.2%	17.7%	17.2%	19.6%	17.8%	19.1%	15.5%
Satisfactory.....	34.2	22.4	36.9	36.3	39.0	38.5	35.6	37.6
Space okay; need equipment.....	10.3	11.9	9.9	10.5	7.9	6.3	10.3	12.5
Equipment okay; need space.....	18.0	11.7	19.4	19.7	18.7	23.0	17.3	19.8
Desk room only.....	12.2	13.6	11.8	12.6	9.3	11.0	13.2	10.4
No real office.....	9.6	34.3	4.1	3.8	5.5	3.4	4.5	4.2
Total.....	99.9%	100.1%	99.8%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Number.....	2,302	420	1,882	1,464	418	473	880	529

supervising principals report this condition.

The tabulations by size of school system do not reveal many significant differences, except that in the largest systems a substantial percent of the supervising principals (23.0 percent) appear to be rich in equipment and poor in space. In the other sizes of school systems the proportions reporting various conditions are essentially the same (Table 55).

The situation has not improved over the conditions reported in the 1958 survey. At that time, 12 percent of the total group reported excellent conditions; 45 percent reported satisfactory offices; 8 percent had space but lacked equipment; 17 percent had equipment but lacked space; 8 percent reported just desk room; and 10 percent had no real office. Fifty-seven percent reported excellent or satisfactory conditions as compared with 49.8 percent in the present survey.

In the earlier surveys questions were asked to identify the specific items of equipment available in offices. In the 1928 survey a majority had a telephone, a book case, a filing case, a bulletin board, a typewriter, and not much more. Since the 1948

and 1958 surveys showed substantial gains in equipment, the question was not included in the 1968 survey.

How much secretarial time does your school have?

Fifty percent of the total sample reported that they had the equivalent of one full-time secretarial assistant. The comparable figure for 1958 was 40 percent.

Fifty-eight in 100 teaching principals reported no secretarial help; nearly 9 in 100 supervising principals had no secretarial assistance (Table 56). Twenty-one percent of the supervising principals had more than one full-time secretary or clerk. In the largest school systems (25,000 or more pupils) almost 37 in 100 had more than one secretarial assistant; in the middle-size systems (3,000 to 24,999 pupils) only about 17 in 100 had more than one secretary; and in the smallest systems (300-2,999 pupils) only 15 in 100 of the supervising principals had more than one secretary.

Regionally the principals in the West appear to be in the most favored position with only 15 in 100 with less than one full-time secretary. In the Northeast the pro-

Table 56. Secretarial Help Available to Principals

Number of positions	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
None.....	17.8%	58.4%	8.7%	8.4%	9.7%	1.1%	8.3%	16.3%
½.....	13.8	21.1	12.2	12.3	11.9	4.3	13.7	16.8
1.....	50.0	15.5	57.7	58.2	55.6	57.7	61.4	51.4
1½.....	8.1	1.7	9.5	10.0	7.8	12.7	8.7	8.0
2.....	7.8	2.9	8.8	8.4	10.2	17.3	6.1	5.9
More than 2.....	2.6	.5	3.0	2.5	4.9	6.9	1.8	1.5
Total.....	100.1%	100.1%	99.9%	99.8%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	99.9%
Number.....	2,269	413	1,856	1,444	412	463	870	523

portion with less than a full-time secretary was 20 in 100; in the Middle region, 24 in 100; and in the Southeast, 26 in 100. The West was also in the most favored situation in the 1958 survey.

Tabulations on the basis of college preparation, sex, and the years of experience as a principal did not show any significant differences.

Equally important to the number of secretarial staff members is the question of

their training for the work. A question along this line is summarized in Table 57.

The most frequent type of person made available for secretarial work in elementary schools is a high school graduate who has had secretarial training—this was reported by 62.5 percent of the total sample (Table 57). Teaching principals reported this type in substantial numbers but approximately 33 percent had relatively untrained assistants (e.g. parents). Supervis-

Figure X

Secretarial Help
in Terms of Full-time
Positions
(Supervising
principals)

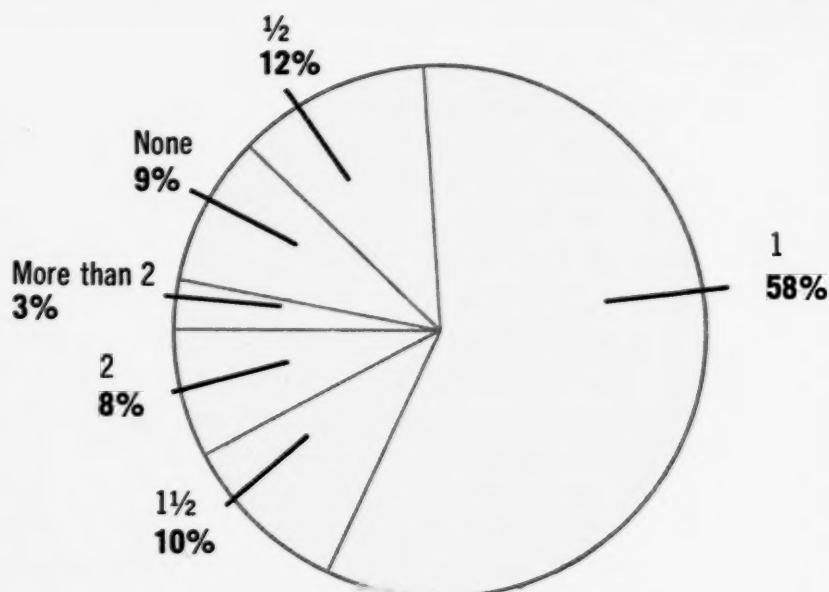


Table 57. The Usual Type of Secretarial Help Available to Principals

Type	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
College graduate with special training	2.3%	3.8%	2.1%	1.6%	4.0%	2.8%	1.6%	2.4%
Graduate of business school or college	16.2	8.3	17.3	15.9	22.2	18.8	17.5	15.5
High school graduate with secretarial training	62.5	43.8	65.1	66.1	61.5	70.5	65.1	59.7
High school student taking secretarial training	3.9	11.7	2.9	3.4	1.1	.2	3.2	5.0
Parents and others without secretarial training	15.0	32.5	12.6	13.0	11.3	7.7	12.7	17.4
Total	99.9%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%
Number	1,975	240	1,735	1,356	379	457	819	459

ing principals as a group had the most favored position with 84.5 percent of their staffs with secretarial training. This proportion was 92.1 percent in the largest school systems (25,000 or more pupils), declined to 84.2 percent in the middle-sized school systems, and dropped to 77.6 percent in the smallest systems (300-2,999 pupils). Contrariwise, as the size of school systems declined, the percent using untrained staff increased.

Regionally the supervising principals of the Northeast and the West are more likely to have secretarial help trained by colleges and business colleges than are the supervising principals in the other two regions (Southeast and Middle regions).

Tabulations on the basis of the college preparation of the supervising principals and on the basis of experience as a principal did not reveal any significant differences. A similar question on clerical help was not asked in 1958 but was included in the 1948 survey. Apparently there has been a substantial gain during the past 20 years—in 1948 about 61 percent of the

supervising principals reported that their staffs were graduates of systematic secretarial training (high school or college) as compared with 84.5 percent in the present survey; approximately 22 percent of the clerical staffs in 1948 were persons without any secretarial training as compared with 12.6 percent in 1968.

Do you have a full-time assistant principal?

Ninety-two percent of the total sample reported that they did not have the full-time help of an assistant principal. Understandably then, as Table 42 has shown, one-fifth of the total group could report lack of administrative assistance as a main block to a better use of the workweek.

Whether or not the principal has an assistant principal is clearly related to the size of the school system. In the largest systems (25,000 or more pupils) 24.2 percent of the supervising principals had full-time administrative assistants. The proportion declines steadily to only 2.4 percent in the smallest systems (Table 58).

Table 58. Availability of Full-time Assistant Principals

Reply	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
Have one	8.4%	2.1%	9.8%	9.5%	10.9%	24.2%	6.5%	2.4%
Do not have one	91.6	97.9	90.2	90.5	89.1	75.8	93.5	97.6
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Number	2,318	427	1,891	1,468	423	475	883	533

Supervising principals with the M.A. degree or higher preparation are more likely to have administrative assistants than are those with less preparation. Supervising principals in the Northeast and the West are more likely to have full-time assistant principals than those in the Southeast and in the Middle region. While the size of school systems is undoubtedly the major factor in these differences one can speculate on the effect of the traditional view in many communities that the elementary school does not need more than one full-time administrator.

Comparison among the DESP surveys does not give an optimistic impression of the gain in the number of assistant principals in the country as a whole. In three surveys the percents reporting no administrative assistants have been: 1948, 81 percent; 1958, 87 percent; and 1968, 91.6 percent. The percents reporting one *full-time* assistant principal have been: 1948, 16 percent; 1958, 7 percent; and 1968, 8.4 percent. While these percents are not strictly comparable the general trend implies that the assistant principalship has not gained substantially as a recognized part of the elementary school staff.

Perhaps one reason that there has not been much gain is the somewhat debatable question as to the major functions of assistant principals. In an effort to throw some light on the situation, supervising princi-

pals were asked to indicate the primary or major function of their full-time assistant principals. Unfortunately the number reporting assistant principals was relatively small thereby making Table 59 a general impression rather than a statistically significant description.

Of the supervising principals reporting on the functions of assistant principals, almost 58 in 100 indicate that their assistants serve as general administrators and supervisors (Table 59). That is, they perform essentially the same tasks as the principal himself. In a few instances the assistant principals have developed a degree of specialization in supervision and curriculum development or in personnel matters.

Which resource personnel are available to your school?

Educational theory, and to a lesser extent school practice, has increasingly stressed the growing complexity of elementary education and the necessity of the principal and his staff being able to call upon the services of specialized personnel. In most instances these specialists are available on a part-time basis. Table 60 summarizes certain types that are closely related to the general management of the school. Table 61 reports on those with broad responsibilities affecting learning. Table 62 lists specialists in subject areas.

Table 59. Major Functions of Full-time Assistant Principals

Major function	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
Pupil personnel.....	12.0%	.0%	12.6%	13.9%	8.7%	12.2%	16.4%	.0%
Supervision and curriculum.....	20.8	44.4	19.7	19.0	21.7	19.1	14.5	46.2
Administration and clerical.....	6.3	11.1	6.0	6.6	4.3	4.3	10.9	.0
General—all of above.....	57.3	44.4	57.9	56.9	60.9	61.7	54.5	38.5
Other.....	3.6	.0	3.8	3.6	4.3	2.6	3.6	15.4
Total.....	100.0%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%	99.9%	99.9%	99.9%	100.1%
Number.....	192	9	183	137	46	115	55	13

In the total sample, more than half of the principals do not have the following resource personnel, on either a full-time or part-time basis: director of elementary education, director of research, testing specialist, school physician, and visiting teacher (Table 60). Table 61 shows more than half of the total sample reporting that they do not have a curriculum specialist, an audiovisual specialist, a guidance specialist, or a specialist for exceptional children. Table 62 shows a similar shortage of specialists in science and foreign languages. Among teaching principals the lack of specialized personnel is often larger than within the total sample. Only with regard to the school nurse and the specialist in music do more than half of the teaching principals report that they have either full-time or part-time personnel resources that they may call upon.

As compared with the 1958 survey the situation among the total samples of principals has somewhat improved as is shown by the following selected examples:

Type of resource	1958	1968
School nurse		
Full-time	7%	14.7%
Part-time	85	70.1
Not available	8	15.2
Psychologist		
Full-time	2	6.2
Part-time	54	55.6
Not available	44	38.2
Librarian		
Full-time	9	27.3
Part-time	29	34.2
Not available	62	38.5
Teacher of homebound pupils		
Full-time	5	6.9
Part-time	48	47.4
Not available	47	45.8
Visiting teacher (social worker)		
Full-time	2	5.4
Part-time	43	42.3
Not available	55	52.3

Principals were asked to report on the types of resource personnel that had been

SCHOOL RESOURCES AVAILABLE TO THE PRINCIPAL

made available for the *first time* during the past five years. For the sample as a whole the largest percents for those reporting gains in recent years were for the following positions:

Specialist in reading 27.7 percent
 School librarian 26.1 percent

Specialist in guidance 16.0 percent
 Psychologist or
 psychiatrist 14.9 percent
 Specialist in speech 13.6 percent
 Specialist in testing 12.3 percent
 Visiting teacher 12.1 percent
 Other types of specialists were reported

Table 60. General Management Personnel Resources Available to the Principals of Elementary Schools

Personnel	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals			
			All	School system enrollment		
				25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
<i>Director of elementary education</i>						
Full-time.....	17.2%	17.8%	17.0%	18.6%	21.8%	7.7%
Part-time.....	31.7	29.2	32.3	48.3	36.1	11.7
Not available.....	51.1	53.0	50.7	33.1	42.0	80.6
<i>Psychologist or psychiatrist</i>						
Full-time.....	6.2	5.2	6.4	3.8	10.2	2.4
Part-time.....	55.6	32.1	60.8	82.1	59.8	43.7
Not available.....	38.2	62.7	32.7	14.1	30.0	53.9
<i>Director of research</i>						
Full-time.....	3.1	1.4	3.5	10.3	1.9	.0
Part-time.....	14.7	3.3	17.2	42.2	12.7	2.4
Not available.....	82.2	95.2	79.3	47.5	85.3	97.6
<i>Testing specialist</i>						
Full-time.....	5.5	6.9	5.2	6.1	6.0	3.0
Part-time.....	38.9	30.9	40.7	57.4	39.9	27.3
Not available.....	55.6	62.2	54.1	36.5	54.1	69.7
<i>School physician</i>						
Full-time.....	1.8	3.3	1.5	1.9	1.9	.4
Part-time.....	30.2	22.6	31.9	47.0	29.8	21.8
Not available.....	68.0	74.1	66.6	51.1	68.3	77.8
<i>School nurse</i>						
Full-time.....	14.7	15.0	14.6	7.4	14.9	20.5
Part-time.....	70.1	61.5	72.0	82.9	74.1	58.9
Not available.....	15.2	23.5	13.4	9.7	11.0	20.5
<i>Visiting teacher</i>						
Full-time.....	5.4	6.4	5.2	4.0	6.9	3.4
Part-time.....	42.3	33.7	44.2	65.0	47.6	20.2
Not available.....	52.3	59.9	50.6	31.0	45.5	76.5

by percents ranging between 1.2 percent and 11.7 percent. The largest single gain was made in the school systems enrolling 300-2,999 pupils where 31.1 percent of the supervising principals reported the specialist in reading as a newly acquired re-

source and in the school systems of 3,000-24,999 pupils where 30.6 percent reported the school librarian and 29.8 percent reported the specialist in reading. Regionally the largest gains generally were reported by principals in the Southeast.

Table 61. Resource Personnel Available in Certain Broad Areas Related to Learning

Personnel	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals			
			All	School system enrollment		
				25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
<i>Teacher of homebound pupils</i>						
Full-time.....	6.9%	8.1%	6.6%	7.8%	8.5%	2.4%
Part-time.....	47.4	28.0	51.7	68.8	53.5	33.3
Not available.....	45.8	63.9	41.7	23.4	38.0	64.2
<i>Curriculum specialist</i>						
Full-time.....	8.5	7.6	8.6	10.1	9.3	6.2
Part-time.....	31.7	14.7	35.5	61.8	33.6	15.3
Not available.....	59.8	77.7	55.8	28.1	57.0	78.5
<i>Guidance specialist</i>						
Full-time.....	7.7	6.9	7.9	13.3	6.0	6.0
Part-time.....	32.4	24.5	34.2	47.9	30.2	28.4
Not available.....	59.9	68.6	58.0	38.8	63.8	65.5
<i>School Librarian</i>						
Full-time.....	27.3	11.4	30.8	38.2	30.7	24.5
Part-time.....	34.2	30.6	35.0	33.8	35.7	35.0
Not available.....	38.5	58.0	34.2	28.1	33.6	40.5
<i>Audiovisual specialist</i>						
Full-time.....	7.7	6.2	8.1	9.9	10.7	2.1
Part-time.....	35.5	20.2	38.9	62.0	39.4	17.3
Not available.....	56.8	73.6	53.1	28.1	49.9	80.6
<i>Specialist for exceptional children</i>						
Full-time.....	10.8	5.5	12.0	11.8	11.1	13.7
Part-time.....	23.3	7.8	26.8	47.5	25.2	10.9
Not available.....	65.8	86.7	61.2	40.7	63.6	75.3

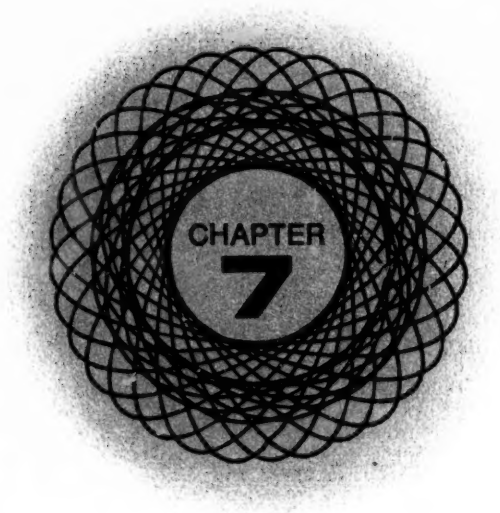
SCHOOL RESOURCES AVAILABLE TO THE PRINCIPAL

One may speculate that the gains between 1958 and 1968, as well as the increasing percents for the past five years, reflect the growing problems of the school systems and the many socio-economic problems recently becoming acute in many

communities. The question may be raised on whether or not the number of specialists is keeping pace with the extent of the new and unique problems in elementary education, especially those that fall heavily upon the principal.

Table 62. Resource Personnel Available in Certain Curriculum and Subject Areas

Specialists in	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals			
			All	School system enrollment		
				25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
<i>Art</i>						
Full-time.....	14.3%	12.6%	14.6%	12.9%	14.3%	16.8%
Part-time.....	42.8	27.3	46.3	69.8	46.6	24.9
Not available.....	42.9	60.1	39.0	17.3	39.1	58.4
<i>Music</i>						
Full-time.....	22.2	16.9	23.3	16.7	21.5	32.4
Part-time.....	54.6	47.0	56.3	72.6	56.1	42.0
Not available.....	23.2	36.1	20.4	10.8	22.4	25.6
<i>Reading</i>						
Full-time.....	19.0	13.5	20.3	17.5	21.4	20.9
Part-time.....	40.5	35.9	41.6	55.9	42.4	27.5
Not available.....	40.4	50.6	38.1	26.6	36.3	51.6
<i>Speech</i>						
Full-time.....	7.6	6.2	7.9	6.3	8.6	8.1
Part-time.....	57.6	34.4	62.8	81.0	65.1	42.7
Not available.....	34.8	59.4	29.3	12.7	26.3	49.2
<i>Science</i>						
Full-time.....	3.4	2.1	3.7	7.2	2.0	3.2
Part-time.....	16.0	6.4	18.2	45.8	11.6	4.5
Not available.....	80.6	91.4	78.1	47.0	86.4	92.3
<i>Physical education</i>						
Full-time.....	18.1	10.0	19.9	17.7	19.1	23.4
Part-time.....	37.6	20.9	41.4	55.9	43.8	24.5
Not available.....	44.2	69.1	38.7	26.4	37.2	52.2
<i>Foreign languages</i>						
Full-time.....	2.7	1.7	3.0	3.4	2.3	3.8
Part-time.....	15.3	5.5	17.5	31.6	16.7	6.2
Not available.....	82.0	92.9	79.5	65.0	81.0	90.0



THE PRINCIPAL AND SUPERVISION

BEGINNING with the 1928 survey of the principalship the program of the Department of Elementary School Principals (NEA) has stressed the importance of the principal's role in the area of supervision. When asked to report the actual amount of time given to supervision in the earlier DESP surveys and to estimate the desired amount of time, principals have consistently shown that they wanted to give more of their time to the improvement of instruction. Generally they recognize the supervisory function as offering the most professional challenges and demanding the most in technical competence.

The present chapter will deal with (a) the principal's general responsibility for supervision; (b) his role with respect to curriculum, materials of instruction, and methods of teaching; (c) his responsibility with regard to pupil placement; (d) the ways in which he has been most effective within his own school; and (e) the sources and uses of new ideas.

What is your general responsibility for supervision?

The questionnaire offered three brief statements as to the principal's general responsibility for supervision and asked each respondent to select the one which best described his status. Table 63 summarizes the replies.

Seventy-five in 100 in the total sample believe that they have *primary* responsibility for supervision and the improvement of instruction within their schools. Forty-four percent of the teaching principals also recognized their primary responsibility; 82.0 percent of the supervising principals felt that this statement best described their roles.

Among supervising principals, primary responsibility for supervision is more likely to exist in the largest school systems and middle-size systems than in the smallest systems (Table 63). This responsibility as a primary function is more likely to be the

Table 63. General Responsibility of the Principal for Supervision

Responsibility	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
I have <i>primary</i> responsibility.....	75.1%	44.4%	82.0%	82.4%	80.6%	88.4%	81.9%	76.4%
I am <i>partly</i> responsible.....	20.6	37.0	17.0	16.7	18.0	11.2	17.1	21.9
I have <i>little</i> responsibility.....	4.3	18.6	1.1	1.0	1.4	.4	1.0	1.7
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Number.....	2,300	419	1,881	1,464	417	473	878	530

practice in the Northeast and the West than it is in the Southeast and Middle region.

Tabulations on the basis of the sex of principals, years of experience as a principal, and level of college preparation did not reveal any significant differences. The questions asked in the earlier DESP surveys were so different that no statistical comparisons can be made. The general impression from the data, however, is that the principal's general responsibility for supervision has not changed since 1958.

What is your role with respect to the curriculum, instructional materials, and methods?

It is generally recognized today, and this has been true for at least four decades, that such matters as the curriculum development, selection of instructional materials, and the use of specific methods are matters for cooperative planning and action both within the individual school and in the school system. This cooperative approach was noted as a trend in the 1958 survey.

Shaping the curriculum. Those receiving the questionnaire were offered three descriptive statements and asked to indicate the one that best described their individual

roles in shaping the curriculum and the general program of the school. Table 64 gives the summary of replies.

The three choices for consideration by respondents were:

- (a) I follow closely the program of the school system without specifically trying to influence its development. (Identified in the text and Table 64 as "Follow closely.")
- (b) I follow closely the program of the school system but exert *some* influence upon developing the educational program. (Identified in the text and Table 64 as "Some influence.")
- (c) Classroom teachers, principals, and resource persons plan and develop the content of the studies for the school system. The teachers and I modify and adapt the general plan in terms of our school needs. (Identified in the text and Table 64 as "Modify and adapt.")

More than half of the total sample believe that they have a responsibility to "modify and adapt" the general school system's curriculum program working in cooperation with the teachers of their schools. Supervising principals are more likely to feel this responsibility than are teaching principals, yet nearly 41 percent of the latter recognized that to "modify and

Table 64. The Principal's Role in Shaping the Curriculum

Role	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
Follow closely.....	6.2%	17.3%	3.7%	3.5%	4.6%	2.2%	5.9%	3.7%	3.4%
Some influence.....	39.7	42.2	39.1	40.6	33.8	35.8	36.4	40.7	42.0
Modify and adapt.....	54.1	40.5	57.2	55.9	61.6	62.0	57.8	55.6	54.7
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%	100.1%
Number.....	2,292	417	1,875	1,461	414	405	393	572	505

adapt" the school system's program to their individual schools was a function of their positions. (The comparable percent in 1958 for teaching principals was 39 percent.)

On a regional basis the "modify and adapt" procedure was definitely more frequently accepted by supervising principals in the Northeast than it was in the other three sections of the country. Tabulations on the basis of years of experience as a principal showed a larger proportion of supervising principals with less than 5 years of experience reporting this as their function than was true of those with more than 5 years of experience in the principalship. This function was reported more frequently by women supervising principals than by men supervising principals (also true in the 1958 survey). The percent differences, however, were not large.

Tabulations on the basis of the enrollment in school systems did not reveal any significant differences. Apparently level of college preparation did not affect the principal's view as to his function.

Although the question of the principal's role in curriculum development was worded somewhat differently in the 1958 survey, certain general comparisons can be made: in 1958 the cooperative "modify and adapt" procedure was reported by 62 percent of the supervising principals (in 1968, 57.2 percent); in 1958 the "some in-

fluence" function was reported by 29 percent of the supervising principals (in 1968, 39.1 percent); and in 1958 the generally "follow closely" function was reported by 9 percent (in 1968, 3.7 percent). The general conclusion, and only a general conclusion can be drawn, is that the principal's role in shaping the curriculum is essentially the same in 1968 as it was in 1958.

Selecting instructional materials. In the 1968 survey each principal was offered three statements and asked to mark the one that best described his individual role in selecting the instructional materials used in their schools. The three statements were:

- (a) The central office selects the materials; I make no important recommendations. (Referred to in the text and in Table 65 as "Central office.")
- (b) School system committees decide what materials will be available to all schools; I can get a few changes. (Referred to as "School system committees" in the text and Table 65.)
- (c) My staff and I work together to list the materials needed for our program. (Referred to as "Faculty-principal cooperation.")

In the total sample 54.2 percent of the principals believe that their roles in selecting instructional materials is to work with their staffs in listing the materials needed

Table 65. The Principal's Role in the Selection of Instructional Materials

Major factor	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
Central office.....	7.4%	16.8%	5.3%	4.8%	7.0%	7.9%	5.3%	2.8%
School system committees	38.4	31.0	40.0	40.1	39.7	51.4	44.9	21.8
Faculty-principal cooperation.....	54.2	52.2	54.7	55.1	53.4	40.7	49.8	75.3
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	99.9%
Number.....	2,292	416	1,876	1,460	416	469	880	527

for the school's program. More than one-third report that the decisions on instructional materials are made largely by school system committees with little opportunity to make changes; 7.4 percent report that the central office makes the decisions (Table 65).

The tabulations by the size of school system show a significant difference. In the larger school systems (3,000 or more pupils) the decisions on instructional materials are likely to be made by school system committees or by the central office. In the smallest systems (300-2,999 pupils)

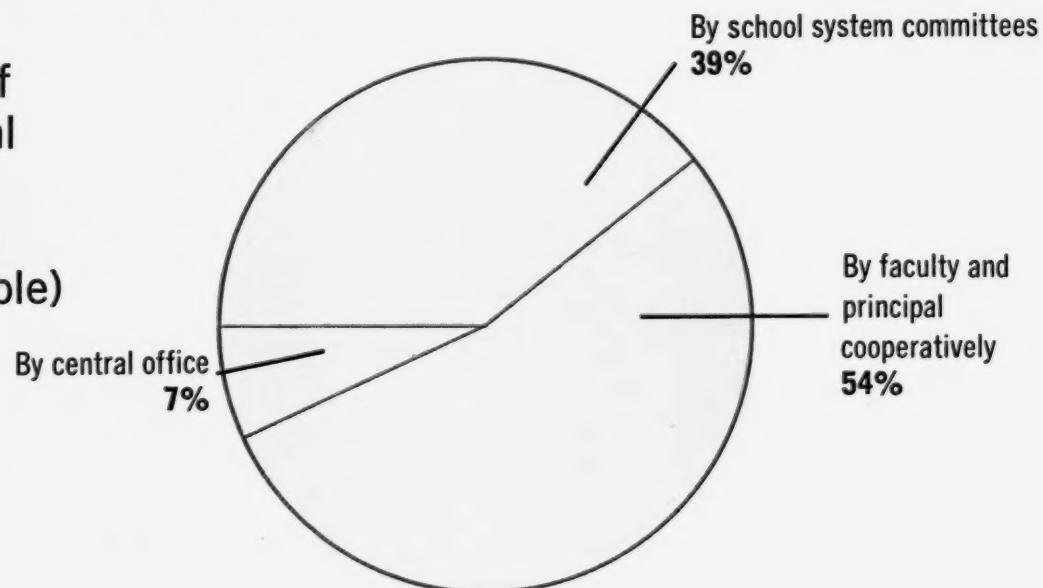
a surprising 75.3 percent of the supervising principals report that instructional materials are largely determined by the school faculty and the principal working together.

Regionally the supervising principals in the Northeast and in the Southeast appear to be in a more favorable position than supervising principals in the Middle region and in the West. More than 60 in 100 supervising principals in the more favored regions report that their schools operate on a "faculty-principal cooperation" basis.

Tabulations by the sex of supervising principals, the level of their college prepa-

Figure XI

Selection of Instructional Materials for Schools (Total sample)



ration, and their years in the principalship did not reveal any significant differences.

Again, exact comparisons cannot be made with the 1958 survey because of differences in the wording of the choices. In general three pertinent conclusions can be made: (a) in the decade there has been a marked decline in the proportion of supervising principals reporting that the selection of instructional materials is handled exclusively by the central office; (b) there has been substantial increase in the proportion of supervising principals reporting that decisions on materials are made largely by school system committees; and (c) the pattern of selection of materials by faculty-principal cooperation in the individual school continues to be the dominant pattern although reported by a slightly smaller proportion of all supervising principals in 1968 as compared with the total group in 1958.

Determining specific teaching methods. In getting perspective upon the role of principals in determining specific methods of teaching, each respondent was asked to examine five statements and to mark the one which best described his situation. The statements were:

- (a) Each teacher determines his own

methods; I have little part in making decisions. (Referred to hereafter as "Teacher alone.")

- (b) Although no one can make all decisions alone, I try to keep watch upon specific methods and to make sure that the better methods are used in every classroom. (Referred to as "Principal dominant" in the text and in Table 66.)

- (c) While each teacher largely determines the methods he uses, I am consulted and offer suggestions as I see fit. (Referred to in the text as "Principal advises.")

- (d) Instructional supervisors and resource persons keep a close watch on teachers' methods to assure that the better methods are used. While I assist in this procedure, teachers look to them for direction and help in instructional methods. (Referred to as "Supervisors dominant" in the text and Table 66.)

- (e) Ultimately each teacher makes his own decisions, but we depend a great deal upon group decisions by committees of the faculty; I am a member of these groups. (Referred to as "Teacher, groups, and principal.")

More than half of the total sample (52.1 percent) reported that their roles with re-

Table 66. The Principal's Role in Determining Specific Teaching Methods

Pattern	Supervising principals							
	Total sample	Teaching principals	Experience as a principal					
			All	Men	Women	Less than 5 years	5-14 years	15 or more years
Teacher alone.....	5.5%	20.0%	2.3%	2.6%	1.0%	3.6%	2.0%	1.6%
Principal dominant.....	16.3	10.6	17.5	17.2	18.7	16.6	18.3	17.4
Principal advises.....	52.1	46.7	53.2	54.8	47.7	57.0	54.4	47.9
Supervisors dominant.....	9.9	11.3	9.5	8.9	11.9	8.7	9.6	10.2
Teacher, groups, and principal.....	16.3	11.3	17.4	16.5	20.7	14.0	15.8	23.0
Total.....	100.1%	99.9%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%	99.9%	100.1%	100.1%
Number.....	2,280	415	1,865	1,454	411	470	868	512

gard to determination of specific methods could be best described as "principal advises." (See paragraphs above and Table 66). About 16 in 100 thought that statement (b) best described their part (principal dominant); also 16 in 100 selected description (e) as descriptive of their roles (teacher, groups, and principal). It should be kept in mind that the shorthand terminology used here in the text was not used in the questionnaire. Perhaps, fewer would have reported "principal dominant" if that term had been used; yet the description was basically built around the idea that the principal had an overall control and made most of the decisions with regard to specific teaching methods used in the school.

The role of "principal advises" was reported in significantly larger proportions by men supervising principals as compared with women supervising principals (Table 66). Also, the cooperative group pattern was more characteristic of supervising principals with the longest experience (15 or more years) than it was of the principals with fewer years in the principalship. Fifty-seven in 100 of the supervising principals with the least experience as principals placed themselves in the category "principal advises."

What is your role with regard to the placement of pupils?

In obtaining a general view of the principal's role with regard to pupil placement each respondent was asked to consider three statements and to indicate the one that indicated his role. The three statements were:

- (a) Children are placed and promoted in accordance with required, system-wide policies; I exercise little choice. (Referred to in the text and Table 67 as "System.")

- (b) Most children in our school are placed according to policies and standards developed by the fac-

ulty as a whole; I share in developing them. (Referred to in the text as "Faculty.")

- (c) Within the framework of general policies of the school system and some faculty agreements, the teachers work with the parents, the child, and me, using tests and other data, to place each child in terms of his needs. (Referred to in the text as "Comprehensive.")

The "shorthand labels" given to each of these statements were not in the questionnaire. They are used here to save space but also to emphasize a key element in each pattern. Under (a) the tendency within a school would be for impersonal system-wide policies to dominate and thereby deprive the classroom teachers and the principals of freedom to call upon data and their own professional judgments. Statement (b) utilizes the skills of the school faculty and involves the principal but contains elements of inflexibility, especially in terms of the individual child. Statement (c) is the comprehensive, cooperative pattern containing the key element, "each child in terms of his needs."

Sixty-six in 100 of the total sample report that they operate under the "comprehensive" plan in determining pupil placement; 22.5 percent said that their role was involved in the general faculty pattern; 11.4 percent believe that placement is determined almost exclusively by system-wide policies with the principal exercising little choice.

Supervising principals, more than teaching principals, report the comprehensive pattern (c). Women supervising principals use this pattern more than men supervising principals. Regionally, the comprehensive approach to pupil placement is substantially more characteristic of supervising principals in the Northeast and Middle region than it is in the Southeast and the West. Supervising principals with the M.A. or higher preparation are more inclined toward the comprehensive pattern

Table 67. The Principal's Role in Determining Pupil Placement

Pattern	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			Geographic regions						
			All	Men	Women	NE	SE	Middle	West
System (a).....	11.4%	28.4%	7.7%	7.8%	7.5%	7.9%	12.7%	6.3%	5.2%
Faculty (b).....	22.5	22.3	22.5	24.3	16.6	18.4	26.6	20.0	25.5
Comprehensive (c).....	66.1	49.3	69.8	68.0	76.0	73.7	60.7	73.8	69.3
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%
Number.....	2,271	412	1,859	1,443	416	403	394	560	502

are those with the A.B. and less preparation. The size of school system showed little difference in the proportions favoring the comprehensive pattern, yet there was a consistent tendency for the proportions using the less flexible system-wide plan to increase with increases in the enrollment in the school system.

Tabulations by years of experience as a principal did not reveal any significant differences.

Exact comparisons of the 1968 replies of supervising principals cannot be made with the 1958 survey because of differences in the basic statements used by respondents to describe their respective situations. The general impression given by comparisons is that the comprehensive pattern has lost some ground during the decade (76 percent in 1958 and 69.8 percent in 1968); the faculty pattern is found in substantially the same proportions in both surveys; the "system-wide" pattern of policies is apparently more widely used in 1968 (7.7 percent in 1968 and 3 percent in 1958).

How do you contribute most effectively to the improvement of instruction?

In an effort to identify a number of the specific ways in which principals perform supervisory activities the questionnaire presented a list of nine statements. Respondents were asked to mark the one

way in which they thought they were *most effective* in improving the instruction within their own schools. The nine statements were as follows:

- (a) By organizing committees of teachers to study and report on how to get more time for teaching.
- (b) By working with specialists and teachers in making the best use of available resources.
- (c) By helping individual teachers identify, study, and take action on problems in their own classes.
- (d) By my own careful study of individual children and by making the findings available to teachers.
- (e) By giving lectures to the staff on methods of teaching and related topics.
- (f) By helping to create a climate in which teachers, individually or collectively, are encouraged to experiment and to share ideas.
- (g) By working with teachers to discover and use better instructional materials.
- (h) By continuous study of the factors in our school which affect learning or instruction and reporting findings to teachers.
- (i) By keeping abreast of research and school developments and seeking to interpret these to the staff.

The authors of the questionnaire recognized that most principals could have marked two or even more of the nine items

Table 68 indicates a few substantial differences on the basis of school system size. Technique (f) was reported in larger proportion by the supervising principals in the largest systems (25,000 and over pupils) than in the smaller school systems. Supervising principals in the smaller systems (under 25,000 pupils) reported Technique (c) relatively more frequently than principals in the largest school systems (that is, "helping the individual teacher identify, study, and act upon problems in his classroom").

The differences in percent between men supervising principals and women supervising principals were not significant. Teaching principals, while reporting in largest proportions in favor of Technique (f), also reported more frequently than supervising principals that their most effective procedure was Technique (g): "working with teachers to discover and use better instructional materials."

Tabulations on the basis of sex, years of experience as a principal, and level of college preparation showed a few minor differences in proportions but none that met the test of reliability.

While several of the items listed in the 1968 questionnaire were similar to those offered in the 1958 questionnaire, there were differences in the wording. A few of the trends among supervising principals may be summarized: (a) there appears to be less faith today in the supervisory effectiveness of organizing committees to study and report on instructional problems; (b) there is less confidence today in the supervisory effectiveness of helping the individual teacher study and act upon his own class problems; and (c) there is less faith in the supervisory value of the principal summarizing and interpreting the findings of research. The small proportion of principals (1.0 percent) who reported in 1958 on the supervisory value of lectures (and leading faculty discussions) disappeared com-

pletely in 1968—no one reported it as an effective supervisory technique.

What is the source of new ideas and how are they tried out?

Most elementary school principals are on the look-out for new ideas, particularly in the field of instruction, and, once an innovation is discovered, an even more difficult problem presents itself: "How can the new idea be put to work in our school?" The present survey approached the question of innovations first to discover what principals thought were the sources of these ideas and second to characterize the basic approach the principal used in putting new ideas into operation.

Sources of new ideas. The questionnaire listed nine items believed to include the major sources of new ideas for most principals. Respondents were asked to check "the main source of ideas for innovations that, during the past three years, have resulted in significant changes in the practices in your school." Again, it may be said that a few of the respondents would have preferred to check two or three sources but this would have taken the focus off of the *main* source which it was hoped the tabulations would reveal. Table 69 presents part of the final tabulations.

Among the total sample the outstanding main source of ideas on innovations was the local workshop—reported by 24 in 100 principals. Professional reading was the second largest proportion; other principals and teachers was the third major source.

Teaching principals also found local workshops most helpful (almost 26 in 100). They also got many new ideas, in larger proportions than supervising principals, from college courses and from the staff of the central office. Men supervising principals, more than women supervising principals, reported that their main sources were college courses and other principals

Table 69. The Principal's Main Source of Ideas for Recent Innovations

Source	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
College courses.....	7.8%	13.5%	6.5%	7.3%	3.5%	4.2%	6.0%	9.4%
Professional reading.....	18.9	12.5	20.3	19.8	22.3	19.0	19.5	22.8
Consultants from outside system.....	10.4	10.8	10.3	11.0	7.8	4.9	10.7	14.5
National professional conventions.....	1.9	.5	2.2	2.0	2.5	1.3	2.9	1.6
State conferences.....	4.6	5.5	4.4	5.1	1.8	2.0	3.2	8.4
Local workshops.....	24.2	25.6	24.0	22.6	28.9	27.8	24.9	18.9
Central office staff.....	14.9	19.0	14.0	12.0	21.0	21.4	14.0	7.3
Parents and community contacts.....	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.8	.9	1.0
Other principals and teachers.....	16.2	11.3	17.3	19.1	10.9	17.7	17.8	16.1
Total.....	100.1%	100.0%	100.2%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	99.9%	100.0%
Number.....	2,211	399	1,812	1,417	395	453	850	509

and teachers. Women supervising principals, on the other hand, reported more frequently than men principals that their main sources were local workshops and the central office staff.

Differences on the basis of the size of the school system indicate that local workshops and central office staff are more likely to be the main sources of new ideas for supervising principals in the largest systems (25,000 and over pupils) than in the smallest systems (300-2,999 pupils). In the middle-size and smallest systems supervising principals are more likely to find the outside consultant as their main source of new ideas than are supervising principals in the largest systems.

Tabulations on the basis of college preparation indicate that those with the M.A. or higher degrees, as compared with those with the A.B. or less, are slightly more likely to find new ideas in professional reading or from other principals and teachers. Those with the lesser preparation are

more likely to get new ideas from consultants from outside of the school system than are those with the M.A. and higher preparation.

On the basis of years of experience as a principal, supervising principals with less than 5 years of experience are more likely to report college courses and other principals and teachers as sources of new ideas than are supervising principals with 15 years or more of experience. Those with the longest experience as principals attribute their new ideas to local workshops in greater proportion than those with less experience.

Tabulations by geographic regions indicate that supervising principals in the Southeast, as compared with the other three regions, depend more upon outside consultants (15 in 100 so reported). The Southeast principals also reported less frequently (only 11 in 100) than the other sections that their main source of new ideas was other principals and teachers. The

local workshop was reported by larger proportions in all regions—from 21.0 percent in the Middle region to 26.6 percent in the Southeast (Northeast 24.4 percent and West 24.8 percent).

A similar question used in the 1958 survey revealed that the major sources of innovative ideas for the total sample were: conferences and workshops, 36 percent (28.8 percent counting state conferences and local workshops in 1968); contacts with other principals and teachers, 24 percent (16.2 percent in 1968); central office supervisory personnel, 21 percent (14.9 percent in 1968); professional reading, 8 percent (18.9 percent in 1968); parents and community contacts, 7 percent (1.2 percent in 1968); and college courses, 4 percent (7.8 percent in 1968). While conferences and workshops held first place in both surveys the remarkable change is the increased dependence of principals upon professional reading and college courses. The 1958 survey did not include the influence of consultants from outside the school system and national conventions.

Putting new ideas to work. The questions on innovations not only asked for the source of ideas that had been used, but also asked principals to indicate the approach in trying out the new ideas. One purpose of the second question was to reveal the attitude of principals toward

new ideas. Three choices were given to each respondent who was asked to mark the one which indicated his approach:

- (a) Since I like to experiment, I constantly encourage and help individual teachers to try innovations. (Referred to as "Individual" in the text and Table 70.)
- (b) I encourage our faculty to look for new ideas; individual teachers report them to our faculty groups, we examine the research, discuss our school situation, and agree on how we can try out the proposed innovation. (Referred to as "Group" in the text and Table 70.)
- (c) I am inclined to think that more attention should be paid to the established ways of teaching the fundamentals; too many new ideas tend to upset the regular program. (Referred to as "Conservative" in the text and in Table 70.)

Among the sample as a whole 62 in 100 principals prefer the group approach in discovering, examining, and trying out of new ideas. Almost 30 in 100 use the approach in which each teacher is encouraged individually to try innovations. Only about 8 in 100 showed a tendency to be cautious about new ideas and to think that innovations were often disruptive of the regular program.

Teaching principals were considerably more cautious than supervising principals

Table 70. The Principal's Approach in Trying Out New Ideas

Approach	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	Experience as principal		
						Less than 5 years	5-14 years	15 or more years
Individual (a).....	29.9%	29.8%	29.9%	28.2%	35.6%	37.2%	29.2%	24.1%
Group (b).....	62.3	51.9	64.6	65.8	60.2	58.8	65.9	68.0
Conservative (c).....	7.8	18.3	5.6	6.0	4.2	4.1	4.9	7.8
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%	99.9%
Number.....	2,251	399	1,852	1,445	407	468	859	510

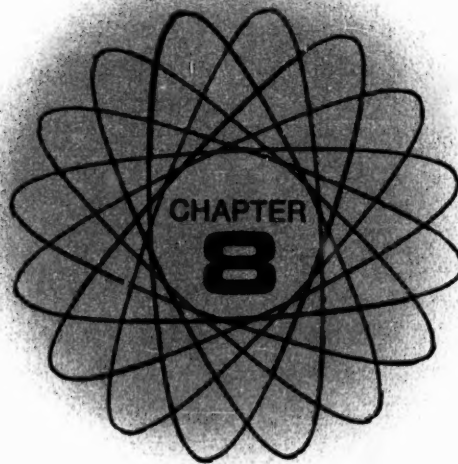
(Table 70). This may be explained perhaps by the fact that new ideas often call for extra supervisory time, a luxury that most teaching principals do not have. Men supervising principals, as compared with women supervising principals, were more inclined to use the faculty group approach (b). Women supervising principals, more than men, relied more on the individual teacher approach (a).

There were differences on the basis of the number of years of experience as a principal. Supervising principals with less than 5 years of experience as a principal preferred the individual teacher approach (a) in significantly larger proportions than those with more than 5 years of experience. Those with more than 5 years of experience as principals (especially those with 15 or more years) were more inclined toward the group approach (b) than those with less than 5 years of experience. The principals with 15 years or more experience showed some greater tendency to be cautious about new ideas, although the difference in proportions was not significant.

Tabulations by geographic regions revealed that supervising principals in the

Southeast, as compared with the other three regions, strongly favored the group approach (b). Differences on the basis of level of college preparation were not significant.

Although the wording of the three choices was not exactly alike in the 1958 and the 1968 surveys the basic elements in each were essentially the same. For this reason a general comparison between the total samples can be made between the 1958 and the 1968 percents: experiment with new ideas working with individual teachers, 80 percent (29.9 percent in 1968); use group testing and exploration of new ideas, 13 percent (62.3 percent in 1968); and pay more attention to the fundamentals, 7 percent (7.8 percent in 1968). The primary conclusion that can be drawn is that, during the past decade, elementary school principals have moved strongly to the use of the group approach—that is, study and experimentation involving the entire faculty or groups within the faculty. The proportion expressing a cautious, “watch the fundamentals” approach did not increase significantly during the decade.



SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

IN AN earlier chapter the data showed that the typical principal devoted about 45 hours per week to his duties at school and an additional 5 hours per week to school-related activities. Of the 45 hours per week directly given to school duties, an average of 5 percent is given to community work—that is, to working with parents, civic groups, and other laymen. For some reason, not readily explained, the proportion of the typical workweek devoted to organizational community activities apparently declined between 1958 and 1968. Even under ideal conditions, when asked to estimate how they would like to divide the workweek, the typical principals in 1968 did not indicate that they wished to give a larger proportion to community activities.

The purpose of the present chapter is to report on four groups of data related to the principal and the community: (a) the general type of community in which the school is located; (b) the type of student

body; (c) the type of organizations in which the principal participates; and (d) the specific ways of interpreting the school to the community which the principal believes are most effective.

How would you characterize the community your school serves?

Principals were given three choices: urban, suburban, and rural. No attempt was made to define these categories because preliminary tryouts of several tentative statements appeared to cause unnecessary confusion. The purpose of the question was to obtain a general overview of the communities served by respondents. Table 71 summarizes the replies.

The basic factors used by the NEA Research Division in setting up the scientific sample of elementary school principals is explained in the Appendix of this report. The fact that about one-third of the respondents classified their communities in each of the three types—urban, suburban,

Table 71. Types of Communities Served by Principals in the 1968 Survey

Type	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 or more	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
Urban.....	33.8%	14.1%	38.2%	34.6%	50.8%	68.8%	36.9%	13.1%
Suburban.....	33.0	17.6	36.4	36.9	34.8	29.1	44.6	29.5
Rural.....	33.3	68.4	25.3	28.5	14.4	2.1	18.5	57.4
Total.....	100.1%	100.1%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Number.....	2,318	427	1,891	1,468	423	475	883	533

and rural—was not anticipated. Since the three types were not defined in the questionnaire, the resulting distribution represents the judgment of the 2,318 respondents.

As might be expected a majority of teaching principals classified themselves in the rural category but it may be surprising that there are substantial proportions of teaching principals in both urban and suburban school systems (Table 71). Three-fourths of the supervising principals are found in either urban or suburban communities. A significantly higher proportion of the women supervising principals, as compared with men principals, classified their communities as urban.

Approximately 70 in 100 supervising principals in the largest school systems (25,000 and over pupils) classified their school communities as urban; almost 30 in 100 classified their communities as suburban. Contrariwise, 57 in 100 in the smallest school systems (300-2,999 pupils) classified their school communities as rural. It should be kept in mind that "rural" usually includes small towns and villages as well as relatively open farming areas.

Tabulations by years of experience as a principal revealed that those with fewer than 5 years were more likely to be working in rural communities. The reverse was also true—those with 15 or more years in

the principalship were more likely to be serving in urban communities. The higher the college preparation the greater the possibility that a principal would be in an urban or suburban community.

On a geographic basis, in the Northeast section 84 in 100 principals reported their communities as urban or suburban—a significantly higher proportion than in the other three geographic regions. The Southeast reported a higher proportion in rural communities than was true of the other geographic areas. A comparable question was not asked in the earlier DESP surveys.

How would you characterize your school's student body?

In recent years there has been an increased interest in the composition of the student bodies of schools. Once again, the authors of the questionnaire were confronted by the problem of definitions. The final decision was to offer respondents four brief statements from which they would choose one:

- Wide diversity in cultural backgrounds.
- Some diversity in cultural backgrounds.
- Homogeneous in cultural backgrounds; predominantly disadvantaged.
- Homogeneous in cultural backgrounds; few disadvantaged.

Table 72. Types of Student Bodies in Principals' Schools

Type	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals						
			All	Men	Women	Geographic regions			
						NE	SE	Middle	West
Wide diversity in cultural background.....	25.3%	15.5%	27.5%	28.6%	23.4%	25.5%	27.9%	24.4%	32.0%
Some diversity in background.....	32.4	33.4	32.1	31.8	33.1	33.2	27.2	34.5	32.4
Homogeneous with <i>many</i> disadvantaged.....	17.8	23.1	16.7	16.2	18.2	15.3	28.2	13.8	12.1
Homogeneous with <i>few</i> disadvantaged.....	24.5	28.0	23.8	23.3	25.3	26.0	16.7	27.3	23.5
Total.....	100.0%	100.0%	100.1%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Number.....	2,272	407	1,865	1,454	411	404	390	565	506

Table 72 suggests that elementary school principals are confronted with student body situations which call for considerable expertness and tact. About one-third of the total sample reported that their students presented "some diversity" in cultural backgrounds; 25 percent had to consider the wide diversity of their pupils. About 18 percent had pupil enrollments which included *many* disadvantaged pupils with homogeneous cultural backgrounds; about 25 percent had a *few* disadvantaged pupils within a homogeneous total group.

On the basis of school system size the "some diversity" group increased in percent as total pupil enrollment in the systems declined. On the other hand, the "many disadvantaged" group (although homogeneous) systematically increased with increase in school system size.

Supervising principals with less than 5 years experience as principals were found in greater proportions in the "many disadvantaged" group; principals with 5 or more years in the principalship were more likely to have "some diversity" in their stu-

dent bodies than supervising principals with less than 5 years experience as principals. These differences imply that there is a tendency in some communities to assign the less experienced principal to the possibly difficult school situations.

Tabulations by the sex of supervising principals and their level of college preparation did not indicate significant differences in the type of student body.

Regionally, the supervising principals in the Southeast were more likely, than principals in the other three geographic regions, to report student bodies which were homogeneous in cultural backgrounds but containing *many* disadvantaged pupils. Otherwise, the proportions obtained from regional tabulations did not reveal any significant differences. A similar question was not asked in 1958.

In what types of lay organizations do you participate?

The questions in this part of the questionnaire sought to reveal the lay groups in which principals had leadership roles as contrasted merely with membership.

Also, principals were asked to report the number of hours per week, on the average, given to the lay organizations.

Types of organizations and degree of participation. The 1958 survey of the principalship contained a question similar to the one asked in the 1968 survey. A decade ago principals indicated the highest proportions with interests in church groups, business and professional clubs, and recreational-cultural and social groups; relatively little interest was shown in patriotic organizations, intercultural relations groups, and in political clubs. Table 73

(Parts 1 and 2) suggests that the pattern has not changed greatly by 1968.

Eighty-seven in 100 of the total sample reported a substantial degree of participation in churches or similar religious bodies. This extent of active participation was the largest of any type of lay organization. The differences between the total sample, teaching principals, and supervising principals were small and not significant. (In the 50 states, 64.3 percent of the total population are church members according to the 1967 *World Almanac*, p. 148-49.)

Table 73 (Part 1). Principals' Participation in Certain Lay Groups

Degree of participation	Type of lay organization					
	Chamber of commerce, etc.	Civic or service club	Church or religious body	Recreational group	Youth group, e.g. Scouting	Cultural group, e.g. art and music
<i>Hold major office</i>						
Total sample	1.5%	13.4%	32.0%	5.7%	12.1%	2.6%
Teach. principal	2.5	6.7	31.4	6.0	12.2	2.5
Supv. principal	1.3	14.9	32.2	5.7	12.0	2.6
<i>Active member; hold no office</i>						
Total sample	5.6	27.7	40.6	23.4	13.9	16.4
Teach. principal	3.0	23.7	42.4	21.4	8.7	11.0
Supv. principal	6.1	28.6	40.2	23.8	15.1	17.6
<i>Hold membership; not active</i>						
Total sample	3.2	9.1	14.7	7.7	8.0	9.3
Teach. principal	1.0	8.5	15.2	5.2	4.7	5.7
Supv. principal	3.7	9.2	14.6	8.2	8.7	10.1
<i>Not a member</i>						
Total sample	89.7	49.7	12.7	63.2	66.0	71.7
Teach. principal	93.5	61.1	11.0	67.3	74.3	80.8
Supv. principal	88.9	47.3	13.1	62.3	64.2	69.7
<i>Total of some degree of membership</i>						
Total sample	10.3	50.2	87.3	36.8	34.0	28.3
Teach. principal	6.5	38.9	89.0	32.6	25.6	19.2
Supv. principal	11.1	52.7	87.0	37.7	35.8	30.3

Table 73 (Part 2). Principals' Participation in Certain Lay Groups

Degree of participation	Type of lay organization					
	Fraternal, e.g. lodge, sorority	Political, e.g. local party	Health and social welfare, e.g. Red Cross	Patriotic and veterans	Civil rights groups	Inter- cultural relations groups
<i>Hold major office</i>						
Total sample	10.2%	2.2%	6.1%	2.2%	.5%	1.2%
Teach. principal	8.0	3.5	4.0	2.5	.5	1.5
Supv. principal	10.6	1.9	6.6	2.2	.5	1.1
<i>Active member; hold no office</i>						
Total sample	23.2	14.9	25.1	10.7	2.7	6.6
Teach. principal	18.7	16.2	19.5	11.5	2.5	4.5
Supv. principal	24.2	14.7	26.3	10.6	2.7	7.1
<i>Hold membership; not active</i>						
Total sample	13.4	20.7	23.7	10.7	3.4	4.6
Teach. principal	10.2	18.7	20.0	6.0	1.7	.7
Supv. principal	14.1	21.1	24.5	11.8	3.8	5.4
<i>Not a member</i>						
Total sample	53.2	62.1	45.1	76.3	93.5	87.6
Teach. principal	63.1	61.6	56.6	80.0	95.3	93.3
Supv. principal	51.0	62.3	42.6	75.5	93.1	86.4
<i>Total of some degree of membership</i>						
Total sample	46.8	37.8	54.9	23.6	6.6	12.4
Teach. principal	36.9	38.4	43.5	20.0	4.7	6.7
Supv. principal	48.9	37.7	57.4	24.6	7.0	13.6

At least half of the total sample belong to health and social welfare groups (e.g. Red Cross and Community Chest) and to civic and service clubs. Except for the church memberships—where almost one-third hold major offices—in most lay groups principals classify themselves as “active members; hold no office” or “hold membership; not active.” In other words, substantial numbers of principals show their interest in a number of phases of organized community life but for various reasons participate in a modest way.

Tabulations by size of school system suggest that the opportunities and the importance of certain types of groups may be greater among supervising principals in the largest school systems (25,000 or more pupils) than in the smallest systems. For example: for the combined categories “hold major office” and “active member” the total percents for cultural groups participation for supervising principals in the largest and smallest systems were respectively 27.4 percent and 16.0 percent; for fraternal groups the respective percents

were 41.6 percent and 30.0 percent; for civil rights groups the percents were 6.0 percent and 0.2 percent; and for intercultural relations groups the percents were 13.2 percent and 5.6 percent.

On a few types of organizations the combined percents for supervising principals appear to favor the smallest communities. For example: the respective percents combined for “hold office” and “active member” for the Chamber of Commerce was 15.0 percent for the smallest school systems as compared with 4.3 percent for the largest school systems; for civic and service clubs the respective percents were 46.5 percent and 35.5 percent; and for patriotic and veterans groups the respective percents were 15.2 percent and 11.6 percent.

Tabulations by sex show significant differences: men supervising principals, as compared with women supervising principals, are more likely to belong to patriotic (and veterans) groups; women supervising principals are more likely than men to be active in cultural groups, fraternal organizations, health (and welfare) organizations, and intercultural relations groups.

Regional tabulations give the impression that supervising principals in the Southeast are more active in lay groups than those in the other three geographic sections. Combining “hold major office” and “active member” results in the following totals: for church participation, Southeast, 88.8 percent; Middle region, 72.1 percent; West, 70.0 percent; and Northeast, 59.1 percent. For participation in civic and service clubs: Southeast, 54.8 percent; West, 45.2 percent; Middle region, 39.7 percent; and Northeast, 35.6 percent. For participation in civil rights groups: Southeast, 6.8 percent; Northeast, 4.0 percent; middle region, 1.8 percent; and West, 1.2 percent. Except for these few examples about the same degree of participation was reported by supervising principals for each of the types of organizations in all regions.

Tabulations on the basis of years of experience as a principal did not show many significant differences. Supervising principals held office or were active members (that is, very active) in about the same proportions for each type of lay organization. Several exceptions were: principals with 15 or more years in the principalship were more likely (46.7 percent) to be very active in civic and service clubs than were principals with less than 5 years of experience (38.0 percent); the more experienced were also more likely to be very active in church groups, 75.3 percent and 68.3 percent respectively; and the more experienced were more likely to be very active in health (and welfare) organizations, 45.7 percent and 20.7 percent respectively.

In 1965-66 the NEA Research Division made a study of the American public school teacher,* including information on membership in various types of organizations. A few comparisons can be made between the percents reported for all classroom teachers in the Research Division study and all principals in the present survey. Considering the totals for those who held “any type of membership” the percents are:

		Classroom teachers	Principals
Church organizations	85.5%	87.3%	
Fraternal groups	19.3	46.8	
Political organizations	22.0	37.8	
Youth-serving organizations	19.7	34.0	
Civil rights groups	5.5	6.6	

With regard to the types of organizations for which comparisons can be made, it is clear that principals as a group are more likely to be involved in lay organizations in larger proportions than are classroom teachers. In many instances, this difference arises from the differences in profes-

sional functions. Participation in many lay organizations often requires one to attend meetings and engage in organizational activities during regular school hours when classroom teachers usually cannot be free for these purposes. Also, many of the problems confronting the principal are more directly concerned with lay relations and organizations than are the everyday problems of classroom teaching. Despite these restrictions the typical classroom teacher exhibits considerable active interest in a number of nonschool organizations.

Time devoted to lay organizations. After reporting on the lay organizations in which they are members, respondents were asked to estimate the number of hours per week, on the average, given to these organizations. Table 74 summarizes part of the replies.

Among the sample as a whole the median number of hours of lay activity per week (excluding those answering none) is three hours. This amount of time was also the median reported by teaching principals

and supervising principals, (excluding those reporting none). Considering the entire group in each category we note that 19 in 100 principals in the total sample reported giving no time to lay organizations; 27 in 100 teaching principals also reported “none”; relatively fewer of the supervising principals said that they did not usually have time for lay organizations and activities.

Women supervising principals showed an inclination to give less time to lay organizations than the men supervising principals. Larger proportions of the supervising principals in the Northeast and Middle region reported no time given to lay groups than was true in the Southeast and in the West.

Tabulations of the supervising principals' replies by size of school systems did not show any significant differences in percents. Differences based on level of preparation were too small to be significant. Years of experience as a principal did not appear to be an influential factor.

Table 74. Average Number of Hours Per Week Principals Devote to Lay Organizations

Number of hours per week	Total sample	Supervising principals								
		Teaching principals	Geographic regions							
			All	Men	Women	NE	SE	Middle	West	
None	18.7%	27.4%	16.8%	15.1%	22.7%	20.3%	15.0%	19.5%	12.2%	
1	9.7	9.1	9.8	9.3	11.6	12.5	5.8	11.9	8.4	
2-3	37.2	33.3	38.1	36.6	43.2	39.2	38.3	38.7	36.3	
4-5	19.4	17.3	19.9	21.8	13.2	16.4	21.3	18.7	22.9	
6-7	6.0	5.6	6.0	6.5	4.3	4.4	7.0	6.3	6.3	
8-9	3.4	2.3	3.6	4.0	2.4	2.5	4.5	2.4	5.3	
10 or more	5.7	4.9	5.8	6.7	2.6	4.7	8.3	2.4	8.6	
Total	100.1%	99.9%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.2%	99.9%	100.0%	
Median (including none)	2	2	3	3	2	2	3	2	3	
Median (excluding none)	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	
Number	2,318	427	1,891	1,468	423	408	400	573	510	

Table 75 (Part 1). Certain Ways Used by Principals in Interpreting Their Schools to the Public

Ways or devices	Principals' evaluations of effectiveness				
	Very effective	Somewhat effective	Not effective	No opinion	Total
<i>Supplying school news to local newspapers, radio, etc.</i>					
Total sample	27.8%	55.6%	6.7%	9.9%	100.0%
Teach. principals	30.8	45.4	5.0	18.8	100.0
Supv. principals	27.2	57.8	7.1	7.9	100.0
<i>Making speeches to community groups</i>					
Total sample	16.2	58.1	6.8	18.9	100.0
Teach. principals	11.8	50.0	6.5	31.7	100.0
Supv. principals	17.2	59.9	6.9	16.0	100.0
<i>Sending school newspaper periodically to parents</i>					
Total sample	23.4	44.0	6.9	25.6	99.9
Teach. principals	17.1	33.9	5.8	43.3	100.1
Supv. principals	24.8	46.3	7.1	21.7	99.9
<i>Sending messages, etc. with the report cards</i>					
Total sample	28.2	56.2	8.3	7.3	100.0
Teach. principals	33.2	53.1	6.0	7.7	100.0
Supv. principals	27.1	56.8	8.8	7.2	99.9

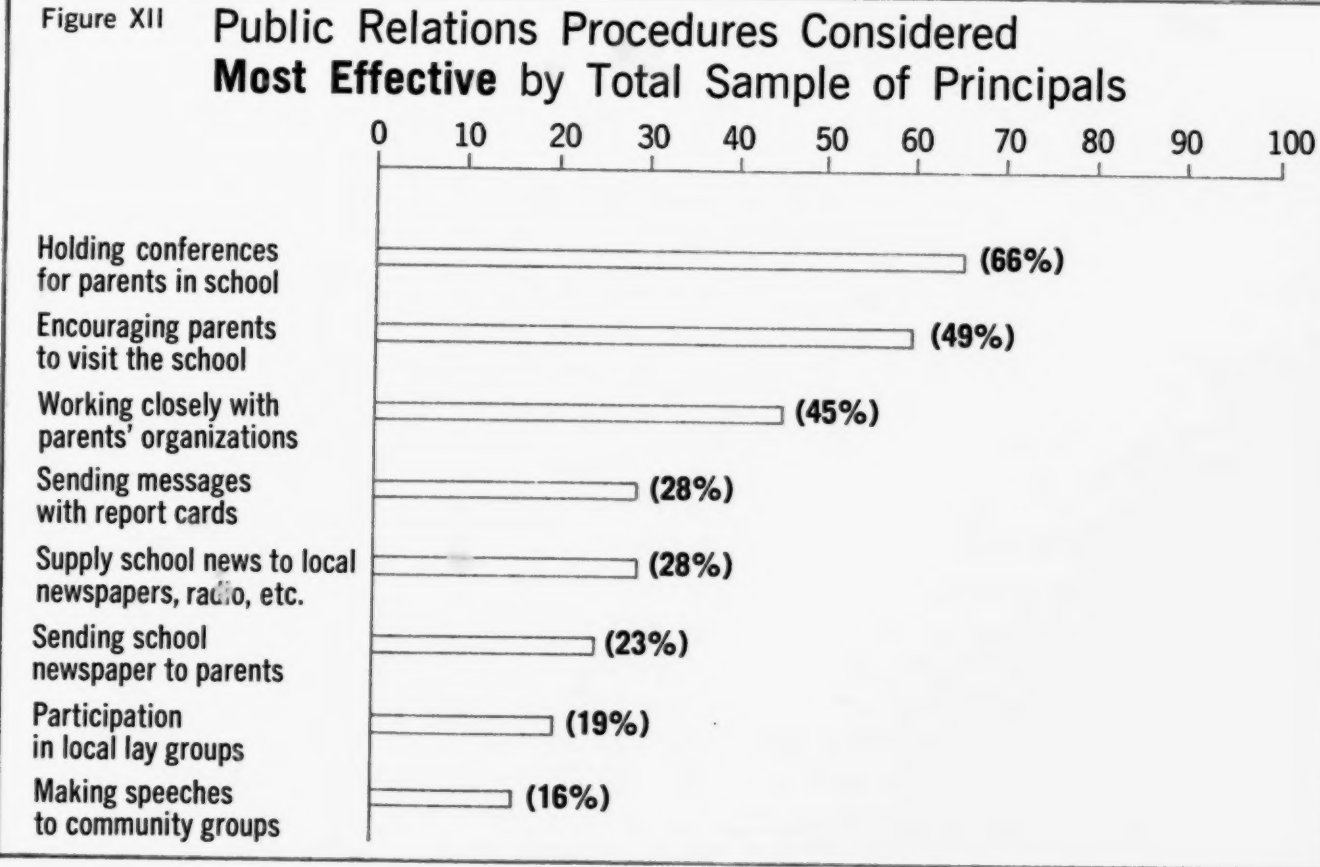
question was upon interpretation of the school to the public. Some of the public relations mediums might have been rated higher for social and information-getting reasons.

On the basis of the size of the school systems there was significantly greater tendency for supervising principals in the larger systems (3,000 or more pupils), as contrasted with the smallest systems (300-2,999 pupils), to give a “very effective” rating to parents' conferences held in the school, school visits by parents, close co-operation with parents' groups, and sending the school newspaper to parents. While many principals in the smallest school systems also rated these methods as highly

effective, they did so in relatively smaller numbers.

Years of experience as a principal did not reveal any significant differences except for two items: working closely with parents' groups and holding conferences for parents in the school. A significantly larger percent of supervising principals with 15 or more years of experience, as compared with those with less experience, rated these two items as very effective.

Tabulations by geographic regions revealed a few significant differences in the proportions marking items as very effective. As compared with the other three regions, the supervising principals of the Southeast had substantially more faith in



the effectiveness of supplying school news to the news media, making speeches to community groups, and participating in local groups. Supervising principals in the Northeast, Middle region, and the West considered parents' conferences at the school more effective than did the principals in the Southeast. Most of the other "very effective" percentages were similar in all regions.

Those with the M.A. degree or higher preparation, as compared with those with less preparation, showed relatively larger "very effective" ratings for two items: holding conferences for parents in the school (70.5 percent) and sending a school newspaper to parents (25.4 percent). In contrast, those with the A.B. or less were more

inclined to rate as very effective the two items: sending messages with the report cards (32.7 percent) and participating in local groups (25.1 percent). Otherwise the percents for the two categories were similar on the effectiveness of various public relations procedures.

A special tabulation of all principals (combining the very effective and somewhat effective ratings) for the three categories urban, suburban, and rural communities (see Table 71) showed a few significant differences. As compared with the rural communities, both urban and suburban community principals were more likely to believe that the following were effective: conferences for parents held in the school (96.4 percent suburban, 95.8

Table 75 (Part 2). Certain Ways Used by Principals in Interpreting Their Schools to the Public

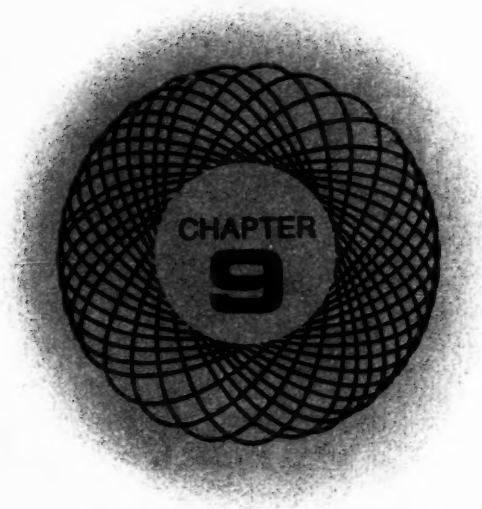
Ways or devices	Principals' evaluations of effectiveness				Total
	Very effective	Somewhat effective	Not effective	No opinion	
<i>Encouraging the parents to visit the school</i>					
Total sample.....	49.1%	40.8%	7.8%	2.3%	100.0%
Teach. principals.....	35.8	46.2	12.3	5.8	100.1
Supv. principals.....	52.1	39.6	6.8	1.5	100.0
<i>Working closely with parents' organizations</i>					
Total sample.....	45.4	43.6	5.1	5.9	100.0
Teach. principals.....	33.2	47.1	6.3	13.5	100.1
Supv. principals.....	48.1	42.8	4.9	4.3	100.1
<i>Participating in local groups (e.g. church, civic, etc.)</i>					
Total sample.....	19.3	50.6	10.7	19.4	100.0
Teach. principals.....	22.8	46.2	7.9	23.1	100.0
Supv. principals.....	18.5	51.6	11.3	18.5	99.9
<i>Holding conferences for parents in the school</i>					
Total sample.....	66.4	27.7	2.3	3.6	100.0
Teach. principals.....	51.0	34.1	6.3	8.7	100.1
Supv. principals.....	69.8	26.3	1.4	2.5	100.0

percent urban); encouraging parents to visit the school (92.7 percent urban, 92.5 percent suburban); working closely with parents' groups (91.8 percent suburban, 91.7 percent urban); sending the school newspaper to parents (77.4 percent suburban, 72.6 percent urban); and making speeches to community groups (76.7 percent urban, 75.7 percent suburban). Rural principals, as contrasted with urban and suburban principals, reported a significantly higher proportion who thought that participating in local groups was effective. On the other items the percents were quite similar for all types of communities.

Another tabulation distributed the various public relations techniques in terms of diversity and homogeneity of the school's pupil population (Table 72). The percents rating the various items as very effective and somewhat effective combined were similar. Although rated effective by a majority of all principals, several items enlisted the support of fewer principals in the communities classified as "homogeneous in cultural backgrounds; predominantly dis-

advantaged." In these situations, as compared with the other types of student bodies, the following were considered *relatively* less effective: sending the school newspaper to parents (60.0 percent rated this as effective); working closely with parents' organizations (84.8 percent); and holding conferences for parents in the school (89.6 percent). It should be repeated, however, that although these three items were rated effective by significantly fewer principals who had many disadvantaged pupils, as compared with other types of student bodies, still these methods were considered effective by more than half of the principals even in these less favored situations.

The questions in the 1958 survey on the various public relations techniques had to do with whether or not principals used certain techniques more than others. The 1968 survey, as reported above, tried to identify the most effective methods. For this reason direct and extensive comparisons cannot be made between the two surveys.



USE AND EVALUATION OF CERTAIN PRACTICES

DURING two or three decades, especially during the past ten years, a number of organizational and instructional plans have been introduced into elementary schools. Scientific and controlled research studies have not clearly established the usefulness of many of these practices. Since the use of these practices hinges largely on professional opinion, the respondents in this 1968 survey were offered the opportunity of evaluating each practice in terms of their own experience. The tables in this chapter are limited to those principals who reported that *they had used the practices*.

What is your evaluation of nongraded organization?

Principals were asked to evaluate the nongraded type of organization as applied to primary grades and as applied to the upper elementary grades. The percents reporting having *used* the nongraded plan in *primary* grades were: 27.5 percent of

the total sample; 21.8 percent of the teaching principals; and 28.7 percent of the supervising principals. Use of the nongraded plan in the *upper grades* was reported by 17.1 percent of the total sample; 16.5 percent of the teaching principals; and 17.2 percent of the supervising principals.

In reading Table 76 one should keep in mind, for example: that only 27.5 percent of the total sample *had used* the nongraded plan in primary grades and of this proportion 55.4 percent considered the plan as "very valuable" at those school levels. Similarly, read other items in Table 76 and subsequent tables in this chapter. The percent expressing approval or doubt about any item is the proportion who has *used* the practice—often a minority of the total group of respondents.

On the basis of size of school system the complete tabulations indicate that the nongraded plan at the *primary* level has been used by a larger proportion (34.6 per-

Table 76. Users' Evaluations of Nongraded Organization

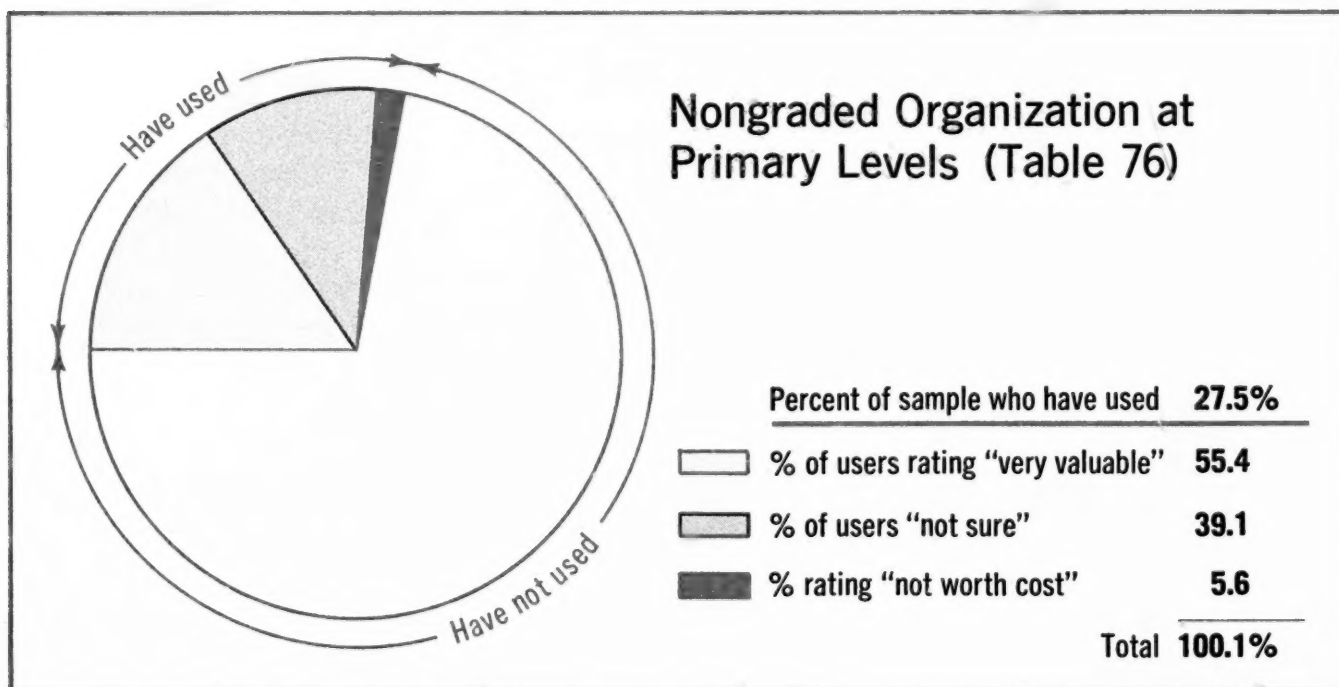
School level	It is very valuable	Not sure of its value	Not worth time and cost	Total
<i>Nongraded plan at primary level</i>				
Total sample.....	55.4%	39.1%	5.6%	100.0%
Teaching principals.....	57.0	37.2	5.8	100.0
Supervising principals.....	55.1	39.4	5.5	100.0
<i>Nongraded plan at upper levels</i>				
Total sample.....	35.6%	55.3%	9.0%	99.9%
Teaching principals.....	30.2	57.1	12.7	100.0
Supervising principals.....	36.7	55.0	8.3	100.0

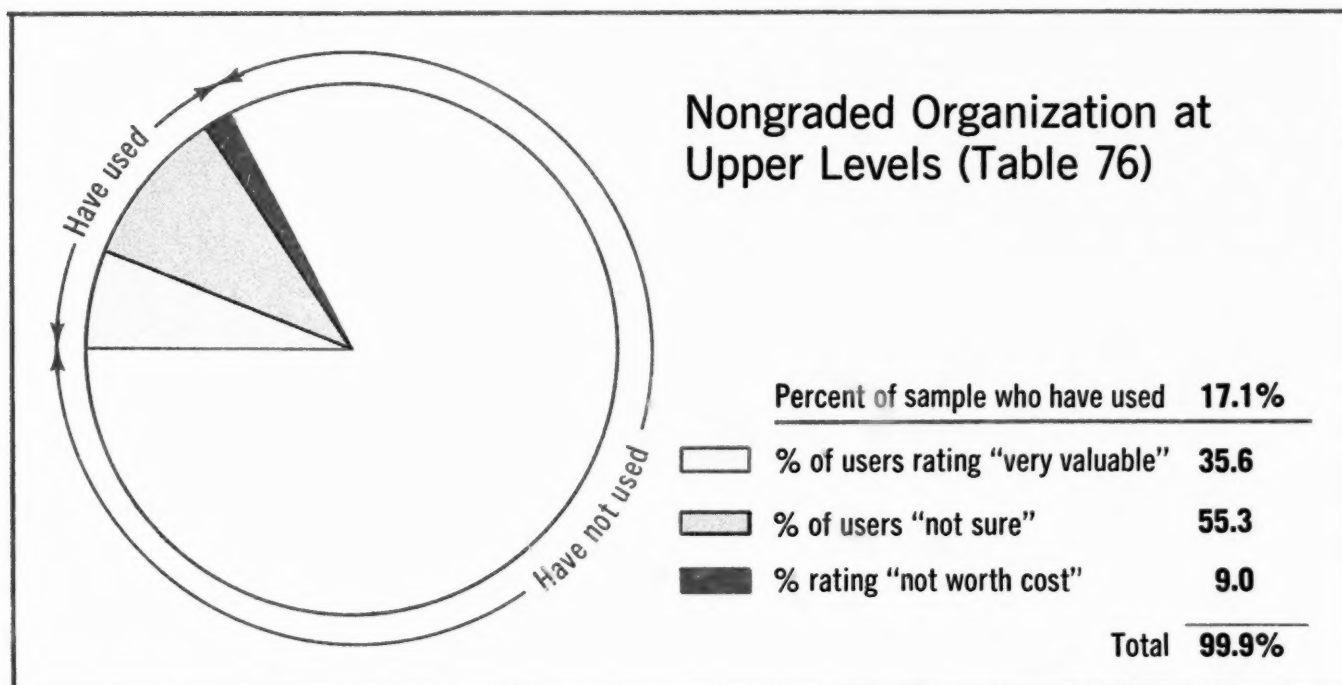
cent) of the supervising principals in the largest systems (25,000 or more pupils) as compared with supervising principals in the systems enrolling 300-2,999 pupils (24.6 percent). The plan also is more likely to have been used by supervising principals with the M.A. or higher preparation and by principals in the Southeast and Middle region as compared with the other two geographic sections.

The percents having used the nongraded plan in the *upper elementary levels* did not show as many significant differences as the

tabulations of use at the primary level. There was relatively more frequent use by supervising principals with the M.A. or higher preparation and by supervising principals in the Southeast and Western region. Tabulations by experience as a principal, sex, and size of school system did not reveal any significant differences.

Supervising principals, in larger proportions than teaching principals, have used the nongraded plan in the primary grades. Experience with the nongraded plan at upper levels was reported by approximately





the same proportions of teaching and supervising principals—that is, by about 17 percent.

What is your evaluation of the departmentalization plan?

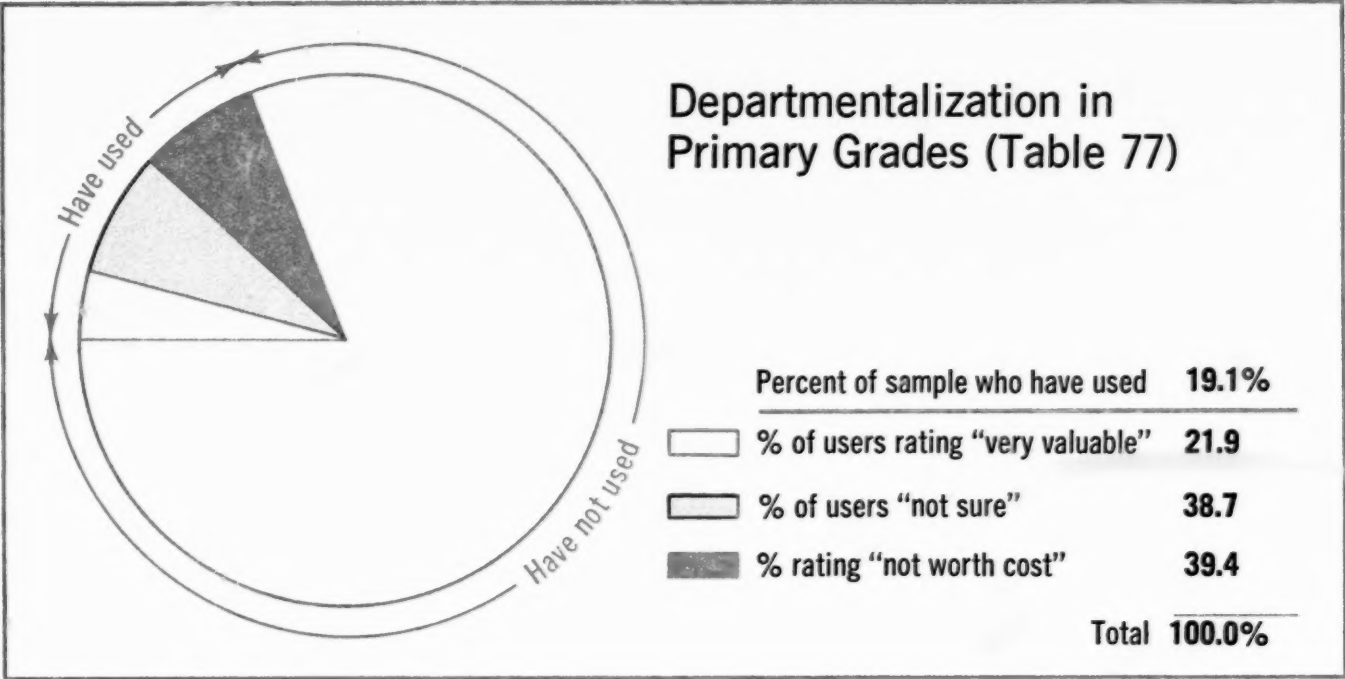
The percents of principals reporting that they *had used* the departmentalized plan in *primary* grades were: 19.1 percent of the total sample; 18.2 percent of the teaching principals; and 19.3 percent of the supervising principals. In the *upper* elementary school grades the percents re-

porting *experience with* departmentalization were: 54.8 percent of the total sample; 45.4 percent of the teaching principals; and 56.8 percent of the supervising principals.

In general, users of the plan do not have a favorable opinion of departmentalization as a horizontal organizational pattern for the *primary* grades. About 66 in 100 consider it a very valuable plan for the upper elementary grades. At least one-third, however, have serious doubts about the plan even for the upper grades (com-

Table 77. Users' Evaluations of Departmentalization

School level	It is very valuable	Not sure of its value	Not worth time and cost	Total
<i>Departmentalized primary grades</i>				
Total sample.....	21.9%	38.7%	39.4%	100.0%
Teaching principals.....	37.7	42.0	20.3	100.0
Supervising principals.....	18.7	38.0	43.2	99.9
<i>Departmentalized upper grades</i>				
Total sample.....	65.6%	26.9%	7.4%	99.9%
Teaching principals.....	82.6	16.3	1.2	100.1
Supervising principals.....	62.8	28.7	8.5	100.0

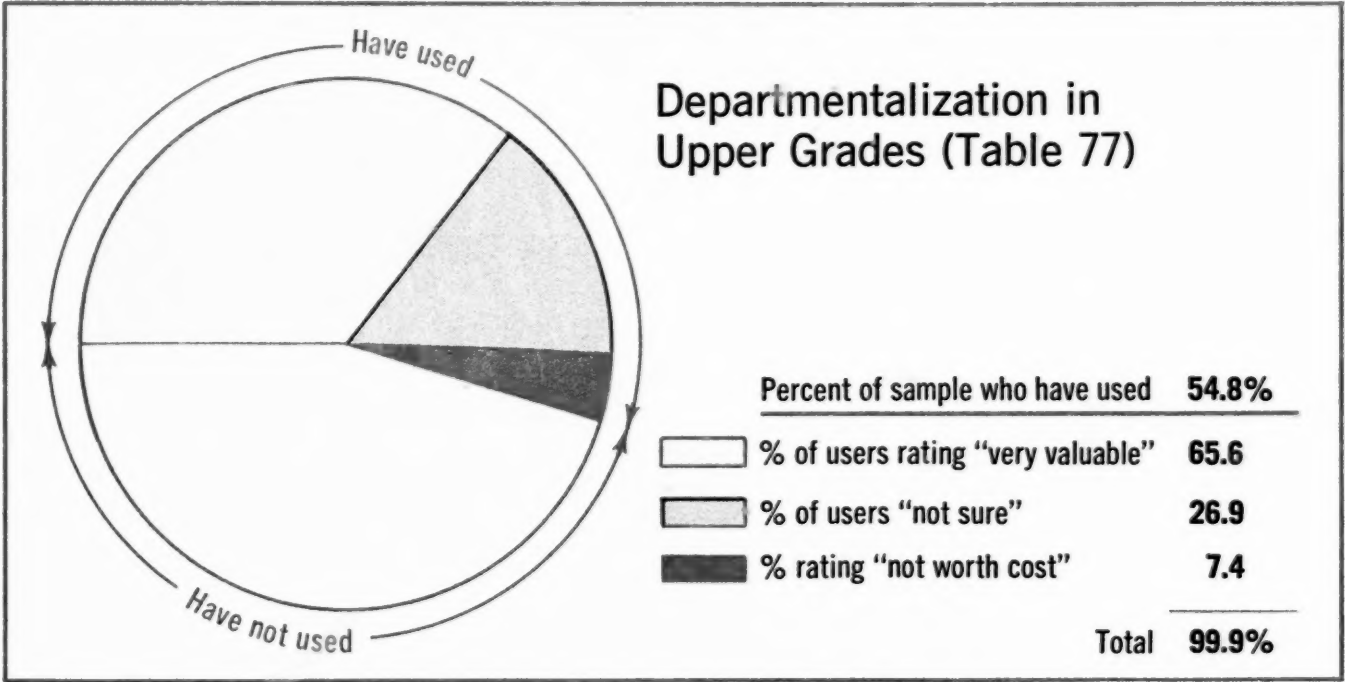


binning percent not sure and percent questioning its value; Table 77).

Tabulations by size of school system, experience as a principal, level of college preparation, sex, and geographic regions did not show significantly higher percents of use of departmentalization at the *primary* level. In each of these categories and in the subgroups within each category usually less than 20 percent of the super-

vising principals reported experience with the departmentalized plan in the lower grades and the differences between subgroups was less than 5 percentage points.

On the proportions of supervising principals who *have used* departmentalization at the *upper* elementary school levels, there were a few significant differences. Principals in the smallest school systems (300-2,999 pupils) showed significantly larger



proportions experienced with the upper grade departmentalization than in the largest school systems (25,000 or more pupils). Relatively more experience with the plan was reported by men supervising principals as compared with women supervising principals.

Supervising principals reported in larger proportions as having used departmentalization in the *upper levels* than did the teaching principals. The percents reporting use of the plan at the *primary level* were about the same for teaching and supervising principals—that is, about 20 percent for both groups. Users among teaching principals (37.7 percent) are more likely to rate departmentalization of *primary* grades as very valuable than are the supervising principals (18.7 percent).

What is your evaluation of team teaching?

Of the total sample, 22.1 percent reported that they *had experience with* team teaching in the *primary* grades; teaching principals reported 15.2 percent; and supervising principals, 23.6 percent. At the *upper level* 29.3 percent of the total sample said that they *had used* the plan; teaching principals, 22.3 percent and supervising principals, 30.8 percent. Table 78 supplies

certain details on the users' evaluations of the plan.

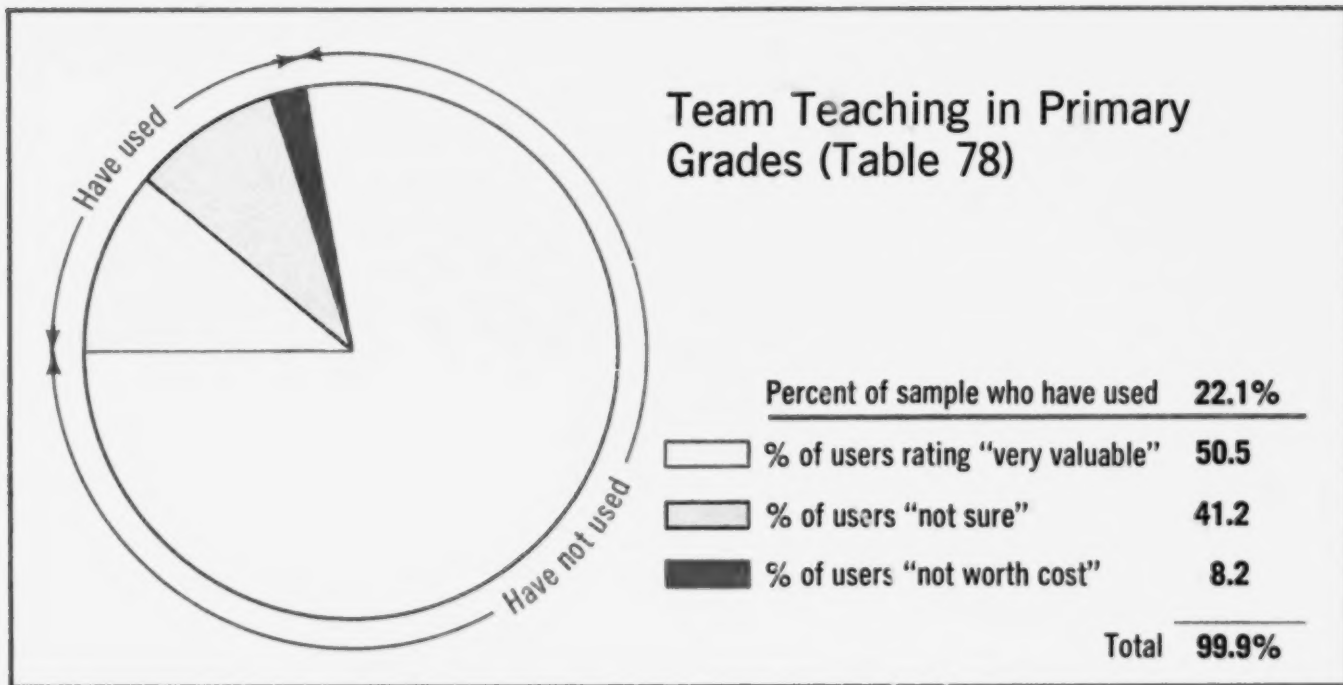
Of the users in the total sample approximately 51 percent said that team teaching was very valuable in the *primary* grades; slightly over 61 percent also rated the plan as very valuable in the *upper school levels*. Among both teaching principals and supervising principals the users supported these general appraisals at both primary and upper school levels.

Larger proportions of the users among supervising principals in the largest school systems (25,000 or more pupils), as compared with the smallest systems (300-2,999 pupils), rated team teaching as very valuable in the *primary* grades. Significantly larger proportions of very valuable ratings for primary grade use were shown by users among supervising principals with less than 5 years of experience in the principalship as compared with those who had more than 5 years of experience. Larger proportions of the supervising principals (users) in the Northeast and the West gave the high evaluation, as compared with supervising principals in the Southeast and the Middle region, to the use of team teaching in the primary grades.

The favorable evaluations stood out at two points for the *upper school levels*

Table 78. Users' Evaluations of Team Teaching

School level	It is very valuable	Not sure of its value	Not worth time and cost	Total
<i>Team teaching in the primary grades</i>				
Total sample.....	50.5%	41.2%	8.2%	99.9%
Teaching principals.....	49.2	39.0	11.9	100.1
Supervising principals.....	50.7	41.5	7.7	99.9
<i>Team teaching in the upper grades</i>				
Total sample.....	61.2%	35.3%	3.4%	99.9%
Teaching principals.....	60.5	37.2	2.3	100.0
Supervising principals.....	61.4	35.1	3.6	100.1



among supervising principals who had used team teaching. Principals in the middle-size school systems (3,000-24,999 pupils), in significantly larger proportions than in the largest and smallest systems, gave the very valuable evaluation to team teaching for use in the *upper school levels*. Users among supervising principals, with less than 5 years in the principalship, gave the high evaluation to team teaching in

larger proportions than did supervising principals with 5 years and more of experience. No significant differences were revealed through the tabulations by sex, level of college preparation, and by geographic regions. In most of these categories about 60 in 100 principals, who had used team teaching, thought that the plan was very valuable in the *upper levels* of the elementary school.

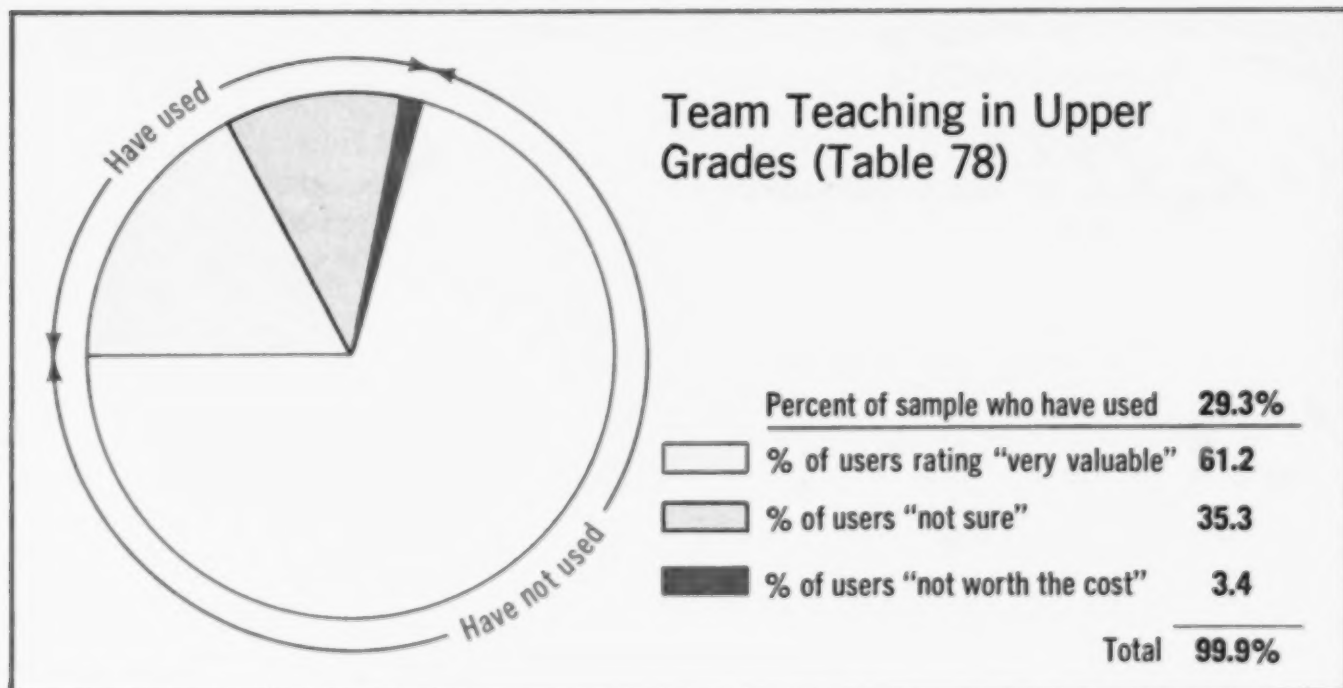


Table 79. Users' Evaluations of Television Instruction

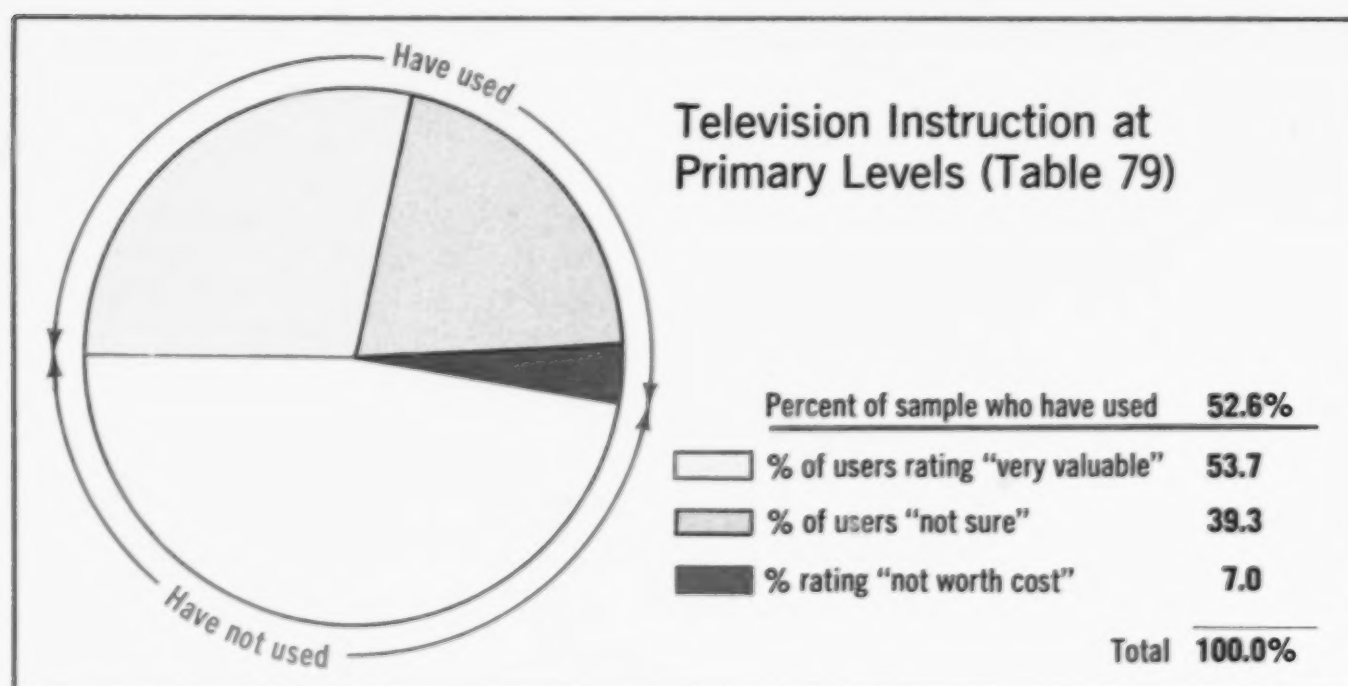
School level	It is very valuable	Not sure of its value	Not worth time and cost	Total
<i>Television instruction in the primary grades</i>				
Total sample.....	53.7%	39.3%	7.0%	100.0%
Teaching principals.....	58.2	36.6	5.2	100.0
Supervising principals.....	53.0	39.7	7.2	99.9
<i>Television instruction in the upper grades</i>				
Total sample.....	60.4%	34.9%	4.7%	100.0%
Teaching principals.....	66.5	29.7	3.8	100.0
Supervising principals.....	59.6	35.6	4.8	100.0

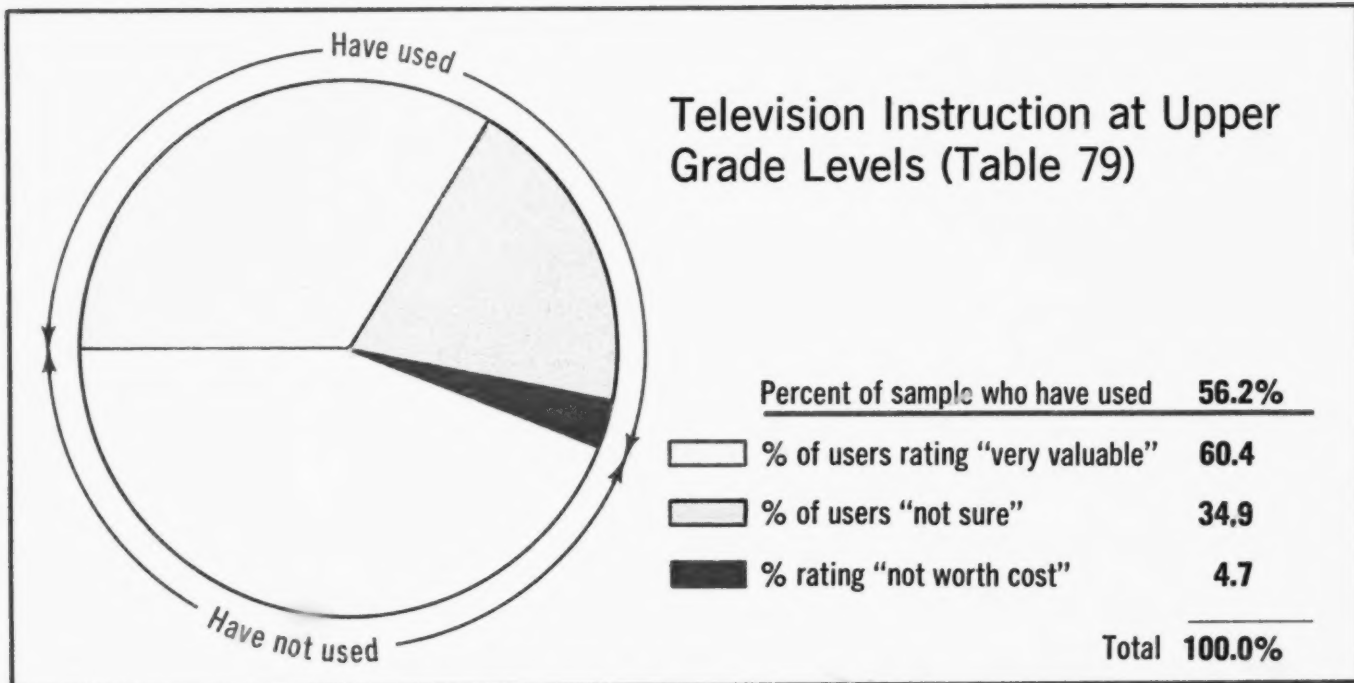
What is your evaluation of television instruction?

About 53 in 100 principals in the total sample reported that they *had used* television instruction in the *primary* grades; teaching principals, 39.5 percent and supervising principals, 55.4 percent. The comparable percents for use in the *upper school levels* were: 56.2 percent, 40.4 percent, and 59.6 percent. Evaluations of this use are shown for certain categories in Table 79.

Television instruction in the *primary* grades was rated, by those who had used it, as very valuable by about 54 in 100 principals in the total sample. Teaching principals, also those who had used television instruction, appear to hold this view in significantly larger proportion than supervising principals.

Among the users, television is viewed even more favorably for use in the *upper* grades of the elementary school: 60.4 percent in the total sample rated it as very





valuable; 66.5 percent among the teaching principals and 59.6 percent among the supervising principals.

Tabulations for supervising principals, who had used television instruction, on the basis of size of school system, years of experience as a principal, sex, and level of college preparation did not reveal many significant differences in their evaluations of such instruction in the *primary* grades. There was a significantly larger proportion of skeptics among users in the West than among those in the Southeast, Northeast, and Middle region. The "not worth the time and cost" proportions were somewhat larger in the Northeast, West, and Middle areas than they were in the Southeast, but these differences were indicative rather than statistically significant.

Television instruction in the *upper* grades is more likely to be given a favorable rating by users among supervising principals in the largest systems (25,000 or more pupils) than in the smaller systems; by women supervising principals than by men supervising principals; by supervising principals with the A.B. or lesser preparation; and by supervising principals in the Southeast and

Northeast as compared with the other geographic regions.

What is your evaluation of programmed learning (teaching machines)?

The percents reporting *experience with* programmed learning at the *primary* school level were: 27.7 percent of the total sample; 26.8 percent of the teaching principals and 27.9 percent of the supervising principals. The comparable percents for experience with programmed learning in the *upper* grades were: 31.2 percent, 29.7 percent, and 31.5 percent. Table 80 reports certain evaluations of this experience.

There is considerable skepticism about programmed learning among elementary school principals who have had experience with this method. Slightly more than one-third in the total sample (who had used programmed learning), rate it as very valuable in *primary* grades, but 62.1 percent of the users were not sure of its value or did not think it was worth the time and cost. Substantially more of the principals rate it as very valuable for use in the upper grades. Teaching principals are more likely to give programmed learning in the

Table 80. Users' Evaluations of Programed Learning

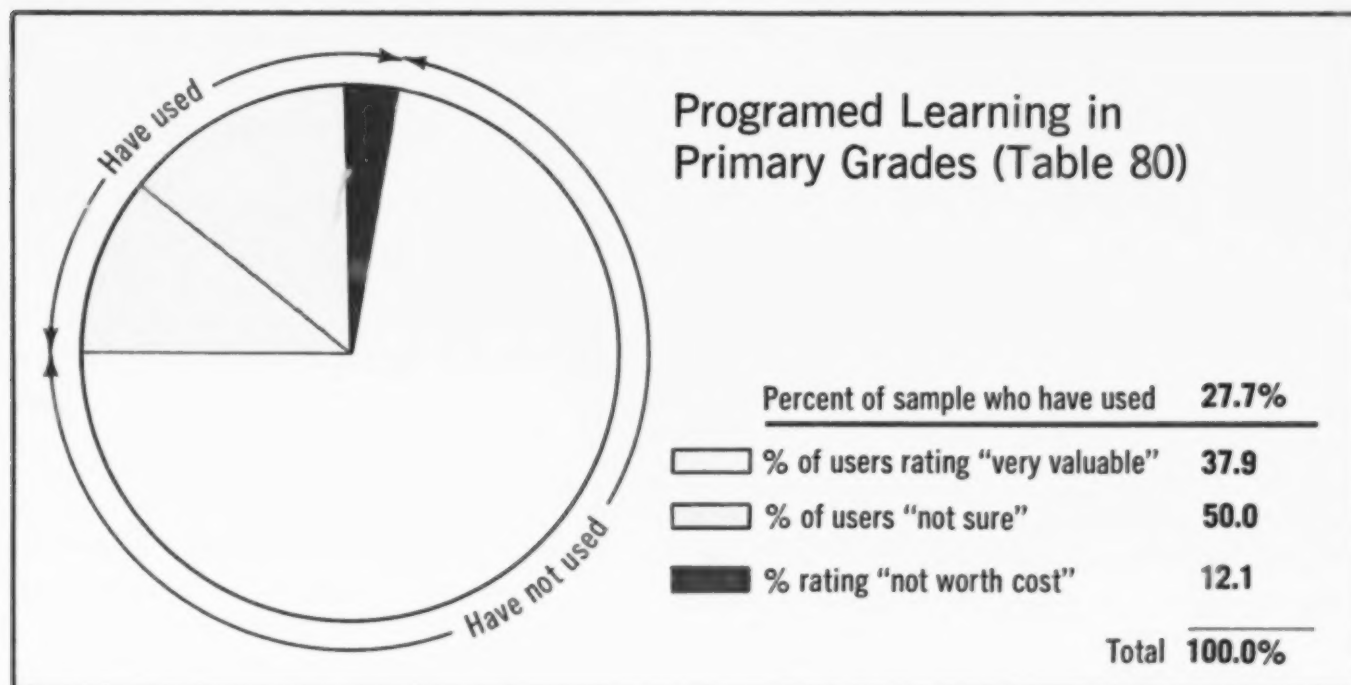
School level	It is very valuable	Not sure of its value	Not worth time and cost	Total
<i>Programed learning in primary grades</i>				
Total sample.....	37.9%	50.0%	12.1%	100.0%
Teaching principals.....	47.1	44.1	8.8	100.0
Supervising principals.....	36.1	51.2	12.7	100.0
<i>Programed learning in upper grades</i>				
Total sample.....	45.6%	47.2%	7.1%	99.9%
Teaching principals.....	54.4	39.5	6.1	100.0
Supervising principals.....	43.9	48.8	7.3	100.0

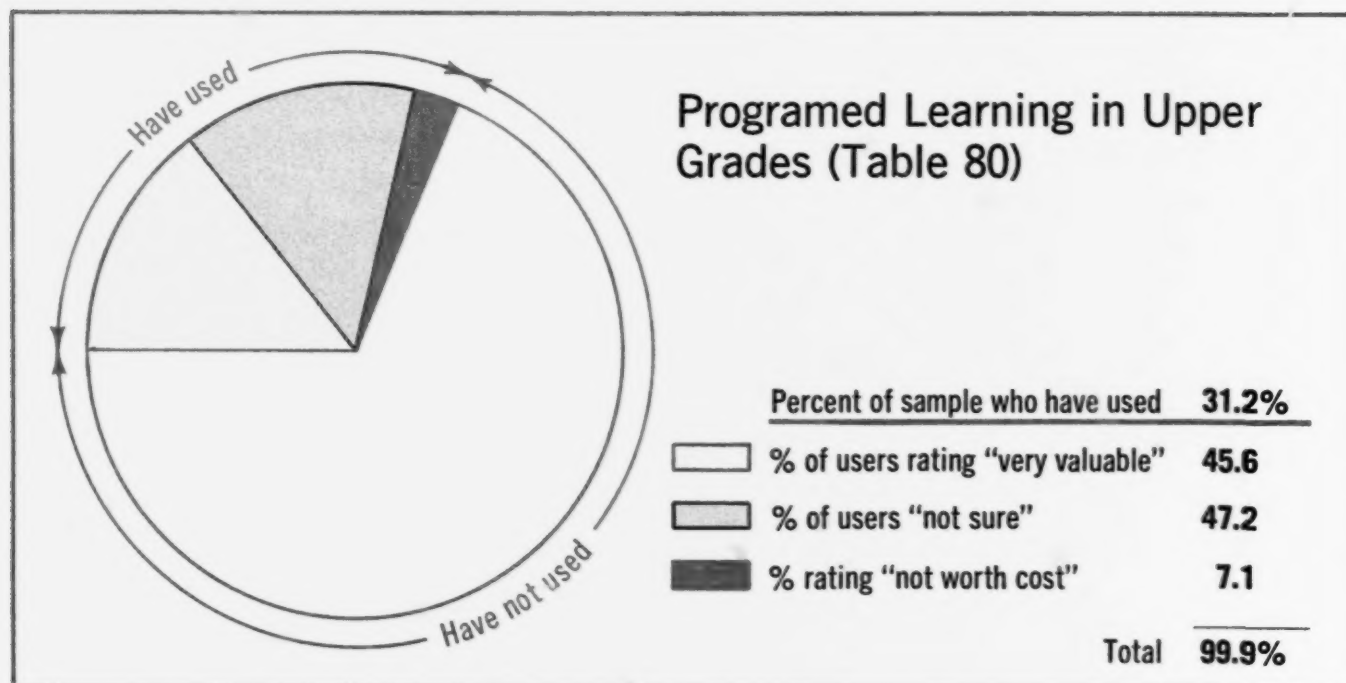
primary grades a favorable rating than are supervising principals.

Tabulations for users among supervising principals, on the basis of experience as a principal and sex, did not bring out any significant differences with regard to the estimated value of programed learning in the *primary* grades. Users among the supervising principals in the Southeast showed a substantially stronger tendency to give a high evaluation than did supervising principals in the Northeast, Middle region, and the West. Users among the su-

pervising principals with the A.B. or less in preparation were more likely to give a favorable rating than those with the M.A. or higher preparation. A rating of very valuable for use in primary grades was more likely to be reported by users among supervising principals in the smallest school systems (300-2,999 pupils) than by supervising principals in the largest systems (25,000 or more pupils).

Among the users, programed learning in the *upper grades* was rated as very valuable by a substantially larger propor-





tion of supervising principals in the smallest school systems (300-2,999 pupils; 51.4 percent) and by supervising principals in the Southeast (57.0 percent) as compared with the other geographic regions. The differences in proportion giving a high evaluation in the subgroups within the categories of years of experience as a principal, sex, and college preparation, were not significant. In most of these major categories the high evaluation was reported within the range of 40 to 47 percent favoring programed learning in the *upper grades* (among those who had experience with the plan).

What is your evaluation of foreign language instruction?

In the sample as a whole 23.4 percent reported that they *had had experience with* foreign language instruction in the *primary* grades; teaching principals reported 14.4 percent and supervising principals reported 25.2 percent. Experience with foreign language instruction in the *upper grades* was reported by 41.5 percent of the total sample, 25.0 percent of the teaching principals and 44.9 percent of the

supervising principals. The evaluations of this experience are given in Table 81.

Of those who had used it, in the total sample, 29.6 percent thought that foreign language instruction was very valuable in the *primary* grades; 27.3 percent of the teaching principals gave this evaluation; also 29.9 percent of the supervising principals. In the *upper grade* use of foreign language instruction the very valuable rating was given by 43.1 percent of the users in the total sample, 53.7 percent of the users among teaching principals and 41.9 percent of the users among supervising principals.

Although not statistically significant, a few other differences are worth noting. On the basis of size of school systems the high rating to foreign language instruction in the *primary* grades was given by larger proportions of the supervising principals who had used such instruction in the largest school systems (25,000 or more pupils); by supervising principals with the least experience (less than 5 years) as a principal and those with more than 15 years of experience; by supervising principals with the M.A. or higher preparation;

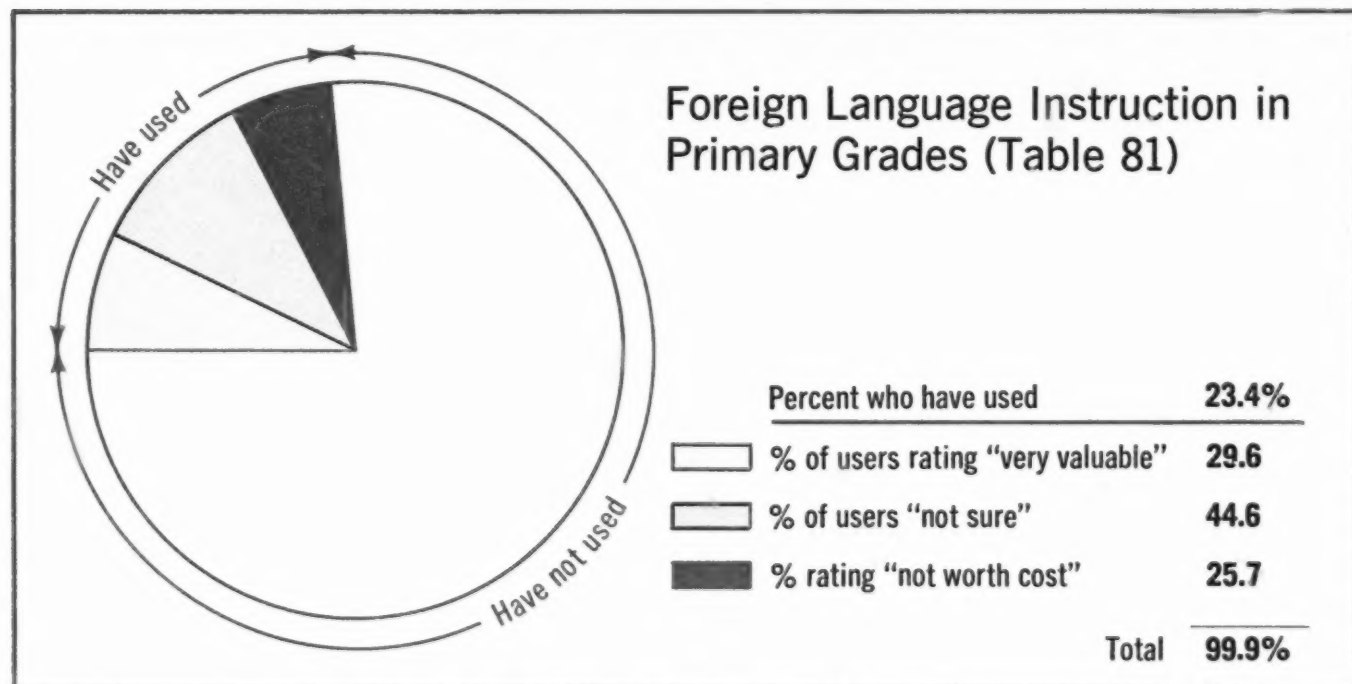
Table 81. Users' Evaluations of Foreign Language Instruction

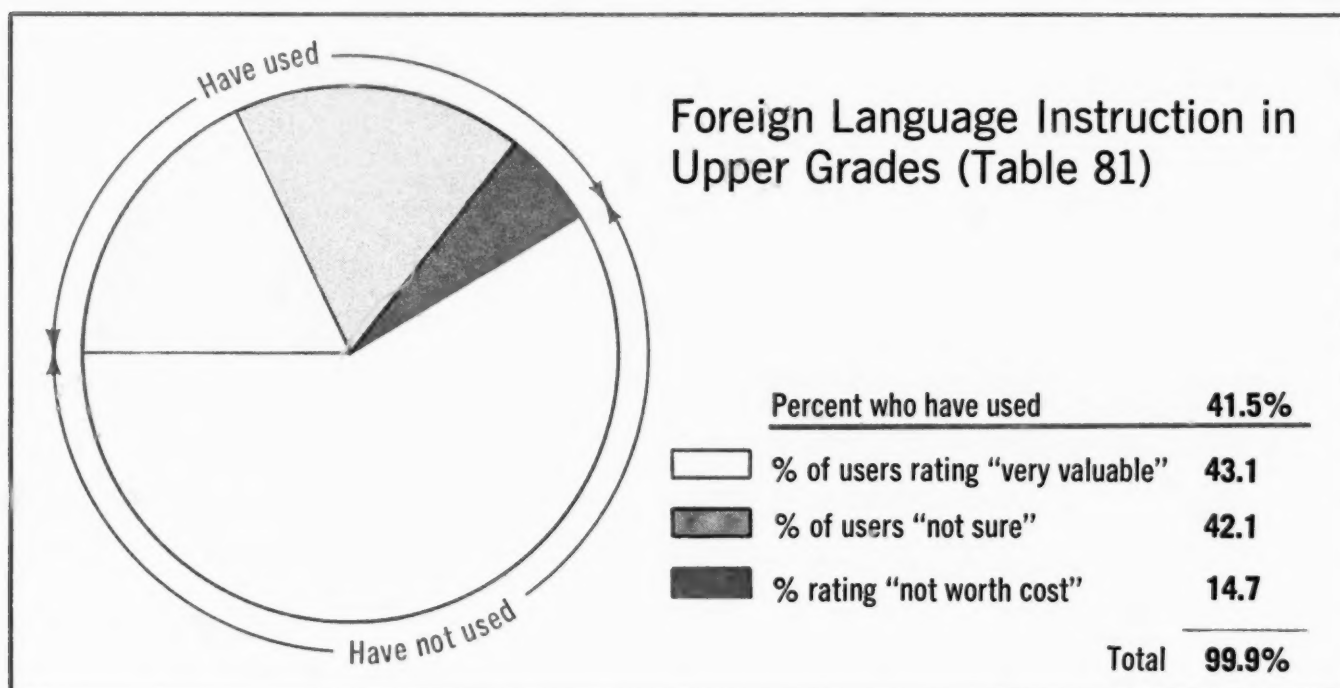
School level	It is very valuable	Not sure of its value	Not worth time and cost	Total
<i>Foreign language instruction in primary grades</i>				
Total sample.....	29.6%	44.6%	25.7%	99.9%
Teaching principals.....	27.3	50.9	21.8	100.0
Supervising principals.....	29.9	43.9	26.2	100.0
<i>Foreign language instruction in upper grades</i>				
Total sample.....	43.1%	42.1%	14.7%	99.9%
Teaching principals.....	53.7	37.9	8.4	100.0
Supervising principals.....	41.9	42.6	15.5	100.0

and by supervising principals in the Northeast, West, and the Southeast. The percents of very valuable ratings in these categories ranged from 31 to 34 percent among those who had experience with foreign language instruction in the *primary* grades.

Very valuable ratings of foreign language instruction in the *upper grades*, given by the users, did not show significant differences on the basis of the size of the school system or years of experience as a prin-

cipal. High evaluation of upper grade instruction in foreign languages was more likely to appear among the users who were women supervising principals than among men; among supervising principals with the M.A. or higher college preparation; and among supervising principals in the Southeast as compared with the Northeast, the Middle region, and the West. The range among the user subgroups within these latter categories was from 42.5 percent to 58.7 percent as favoring foreign language





instruction in the upper grades. It should be kept in mind that these proportions are of the percents *who reported experience* with foreign language instruction in their schools.

What is your evaluation of instrumental music instruction?

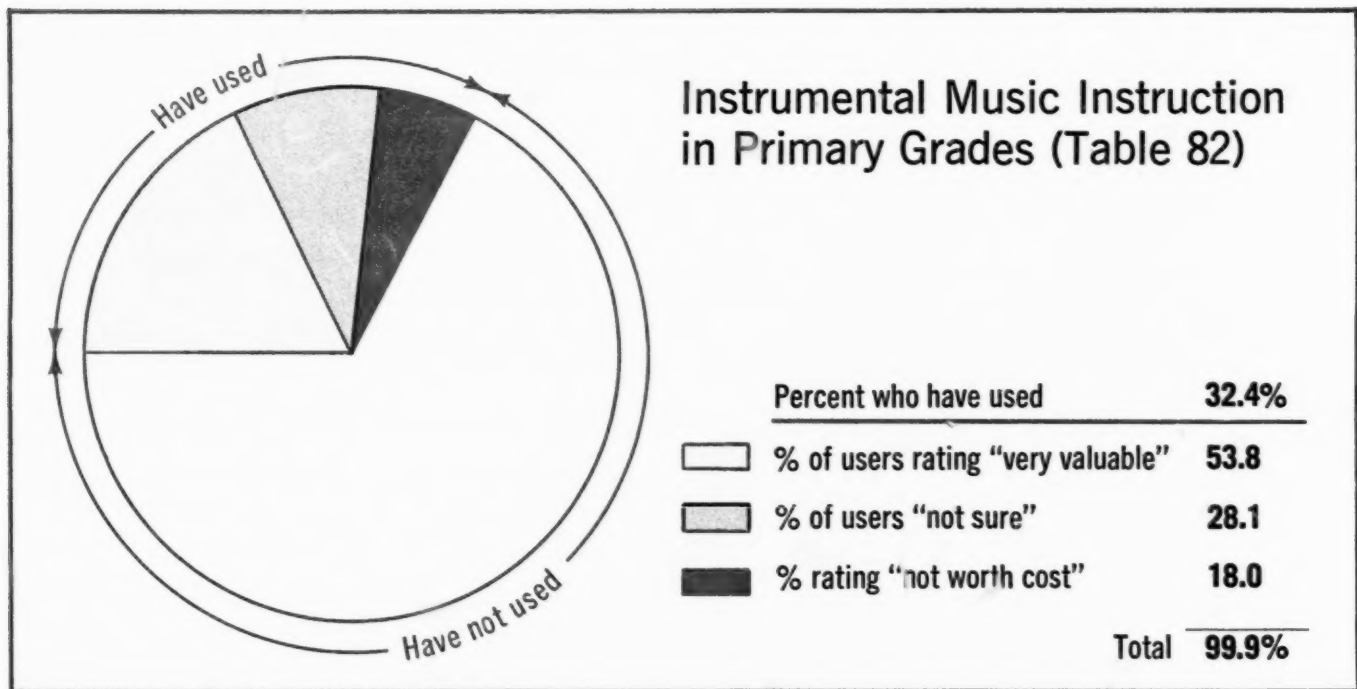
In the total sample 32.4 percent reported *experience with* instrumental music in the *primary* grades; teaching principals reported 33.7 percent and supervising prin-

cipals, 32.1 percent. Experience with similar instruction in the *upper grades* was reported by 72.8 percent of the total sample, 53.8 percent of the teaching principals, and 76.9 percent of the supervising principals. The evaluation of this experience for certain categories is given in Table 82.

Among users in the sample as a whole 53.8 percent gave a "very valuable" rating to instrumental music instruction in the *primary* grades; 64.4 percent of the teach-

Table 82. Users' Evaluations of Instrumental Music Instruction

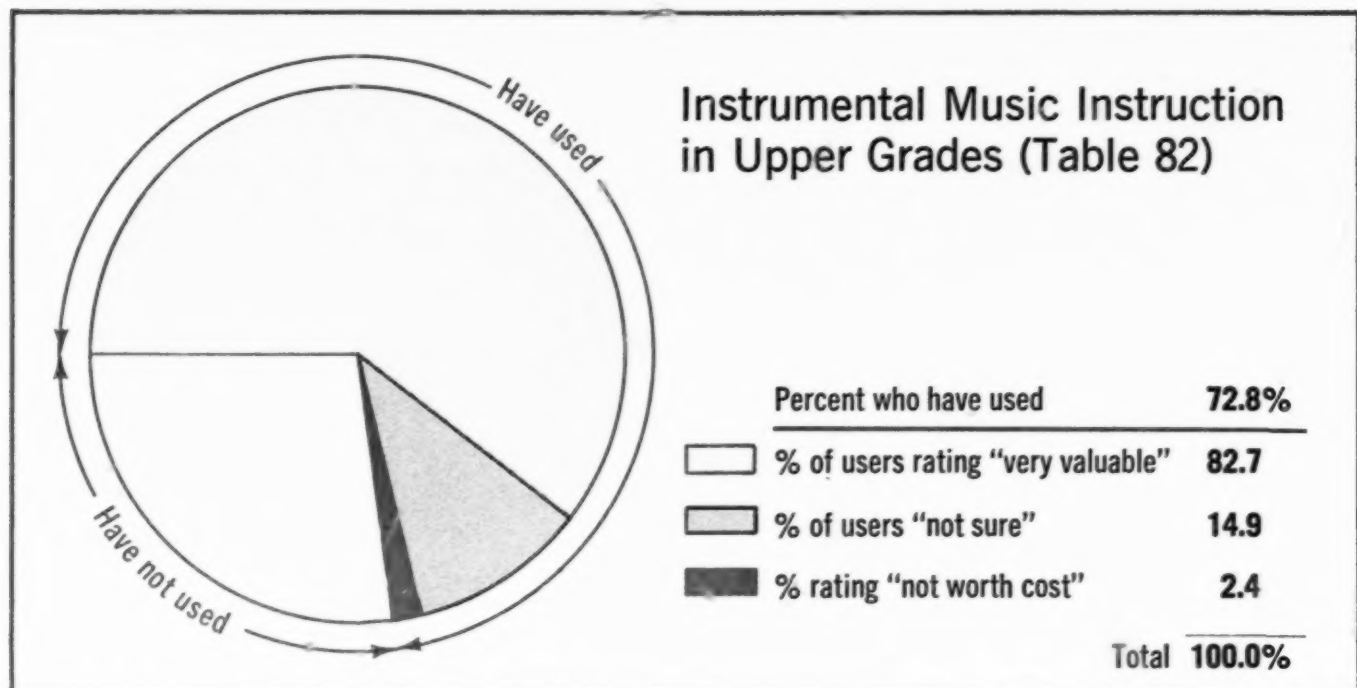
School level	It is very valuable	Not sure of its value	Not worth time and cost	Total
<i>Instrumental music instruction in primary grades</i>				
Total sample.....	53.8%	28.1%	18.0%	99.9%
Teaching principals.....	64.4	27.3	8.3	100.0
Supervising principals.....	51.5	28.3	20.2	100.0
<i>Instrumental music instruction in upper grades</i>				
Total sample.....	82.7%	14.9%	2.4%	100.0%
Teaching principals.....	82.6	15.5	1.9	100.0
Supervising principals.....	82.7	14.8	2.4	99.9



ing principals gave this instruction a very valuable rating; 51.5 percent of the supervising principals also gave this high evaluation. With regard to instrumental music instruction in the *upper grades* of the elementary school, 82.7 percent in the total sample evaluated it as very valuable; 82.6 percent of the users among teaching principals and 82.7 percent of the users among

supervising principals also gave this high evaluation.

Among those who reported experience with instrumental music in *primary* grades, a very valuable rating is more likely to be given by supervising principals who have the A.B. degree or less in college preparation, as compared with those who held the M.A. and higher preparation. Also, the



high rating with regard to this instruction in *primary* grades is more likely to be given by users among supervising principals in the Southeast than by users in the Northeast, Middle area, or the West. Men and women supervising principals did not show any significant differences in their ratings of *primary* grade music instruction (51.2 percent and 52.5 percent respectively gave the very valuable evaluation to primary grade instrumental instruction).

Among users of instrumental music instruction in the *upper* grades the very valuable rating is more likely to be given by the supervising principals in the smallest school systems than by those in the larger school systems. Also this high rating is more likely to be given by supervising principals in the Northeast than in the West; the other regions fell between these two. Among users there were no real differences in the percents giving the high rating when the data were tabulated on the basis of the sex of supervising principals, years of experience as a principal, and level of college preparation.

What is your evaluation of specialized guidance personnel in elementary schools?

Principals were asked to report whether or not they had experience with specialized guidance personnel in their schools and to evaluate their experience with this type of program. In the total sample 45.3 percent reported that they had worked with spe-

cialized guidance personnel; 41.0 percent of the teaching principals also had this experience; as did 46.2 percent of the supervising principals.

Approximately 55 in 100 supervising principals in the largest school systems (25,000 or more pupils) reported experience with specialized guidance personnel—a substantially larger proportion than in the middle-size systems (3,000-24,999 pupils) or in the smallest systems (300-2,999 pupils). The percents for these latter two categories were respectively 42.2 percent and 45.2 percent. In the largest systems 82.9 percent of the users rated the guidance service plan as very valuable.

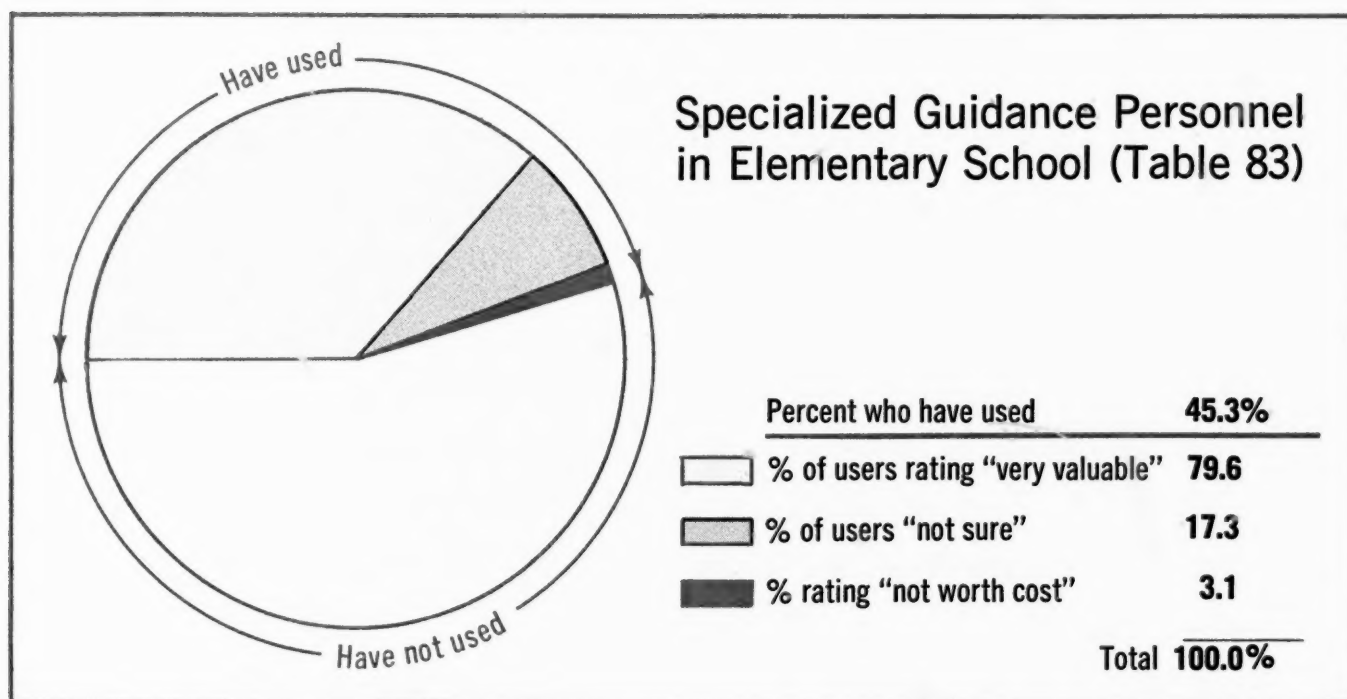
The regional differences also were significant. In the West 59.1 percent reported having worked with specialized guidance personnel in their schools as compared with 45.2 percent in the Northeast, 42.9 percent in the Middle region, and 35.7 percent in the Southeast. Of those who had used the plan, from 71.7 percent in the Middle region to 86.1 percent in the West rated the service as very valuable; the other two regions fell around 82.0 percent in "very valuable" ratings.

The differences between teaching principals and supervising principals in the percents of users rating specialized guidance services as very valuable are not statistically significant. What is significant is that approximately 80 percent of all principals who have used specialized guidance personnel, consider the help of such spe-

Table 83. Users' Evaluation of Specialized Guidance Personnel

Service	It is very valuable	Not sure of its value	Not worth time and cost	Total
<i>Specialized guidance personnel in elementary schools</i>				
Total sample.....	79.6%	17.3%	3.1%	100.0%
Teaching principals.....	76.0	19.5	4.5	100.0
Supervising principals.....	80.3	16.8	2.9	100.0

USE AND EVALUATION OF CERTAIN PRACTICES

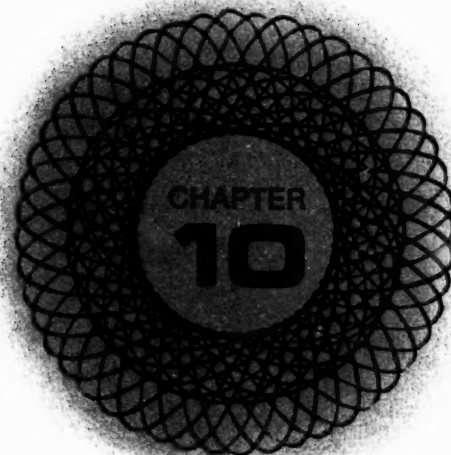


cialized personnel as very valuable.

Tabulations of the users' replies among supervising principals, on the basis of years of experience as a principal, sex, and level of college preparation, did not

reveal any significant differences.

Questions similar to those reported in the present chapter were not asked in the previous DESP surveys of the status of the elementary school principalship.



HOW PRINCIPALS RATE SPECIAL SCHOOL PROGRAMS

CHAPTER IX summarized the replies of principals with regard to the use they had made of certain school procedures and practices—mostly in areas having to do with curriculum and instruction. Question 69 of the questionnaire asked principals to report on whether or not they had used, and how they evaluated, certain special programs. A number of these programs have long been used in elementary schools but in recent years have frequently been supported by federal funds. The purpose of the question was partly designed to bring out the opinions of principals with regard to various activities which have received special federal attention during the past 5 years.

As in Chapter IX respondents were asked first to indicate whether or not they had used or had experience with each type of program listed in Question 69. The subsequent text will report the percent of principals who have used the particular program and then report the *percent of the*

users who reported the program to be very valuable, not sure of its value, or not worth the time and cost. It is important to read many of the percents of this chapter as “percent of users” and not as percents of the total sample of principals.

What is your evaluation of programs for preschool disadvantaged pupils?

Of the total sample 49.0 percent reported that they *had experience* with programs for preschool disadvantaged pupils; teaching principals reported 45.3 percent and supervising principals, 49.8 percent. Among supervising principals those with less than 5 years experience as a principal (54.2 percent) were more likely to have used this type of program than principals with 15 or more years of experience as principals (47.3 percent); supervising principals in the Southeast (57.7 percent) are more likely to have had experience with programs for preschool disadvantaged pupils than are principals in the other three re-

HOW PRINCIPALS RATE SPECIAL SCHOOL PROGRAMS

Table 84. Users' Evaluations of Preschool Programs for Disadvantaged School Children

Preschool programs for disadvantaged children	It is very valuable	Not sure of its value	Not worth the time and cost	Total	Percent reporting federal support
Total sample	72.1%	23.4%	4.5%	100.0%	41.6%
Teaching principals	68.9	24.6	6.6	100.1	30.9
Supervising principals	72.8	23.2	4.0	100.0	44.1

gions (Middle, 48.4 percent; Northeast, 48.1 percent; West, 46.5 percent). There were no significant differences in use based on the size of the school system, the sex of supervising principals, or their level of college preparation (Table 84).

Supervising principals in the largest school systems (25,000 or more pupils), who have used the program, are more likely to rate it (78.9 percent) as very valuable than are principals in smaller systems (under 25,000 pupils) where about 71.0 percent gave the highest rating. Users, among principals with less than 15 years of experience as a principal, are more in-

clined to give the high rating (about 74 percent) than are principals with more than 15 years of experience (about 69 percent). Relatively more users among women supervising principals rate the preschool program as very valuable (80.3 percent) than the men supervising principals (70.8 percent). On the basis of regions the users in Southeast gave relatively more highest ratings (82.2 percent) than those in the West (70.7 percent), the Northeast (70.5 percent), and the Middle region (68.3 percent). There was very little difference in the percentages on the basis of college preparation of supervising principals.

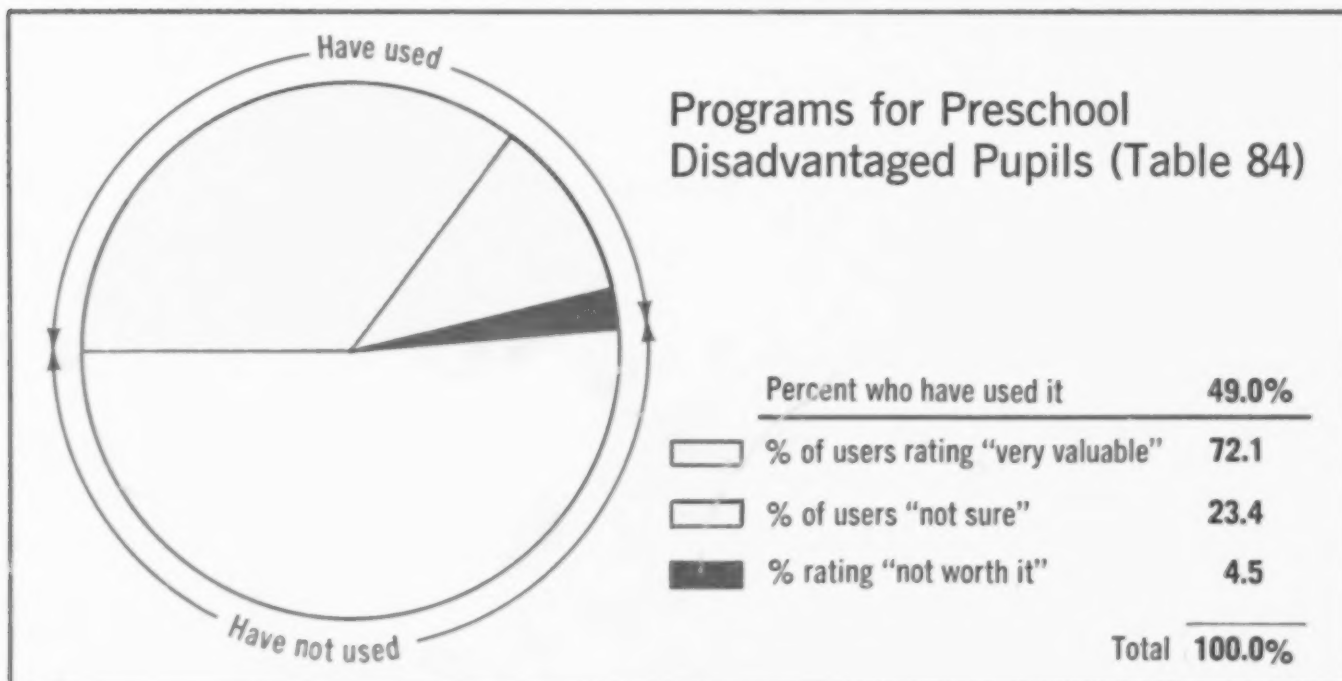


Table 85. Users' Evaluations of Programs for the Academically Talented Pupils

Special programs for the academically talented pupils	It is very valuable	Not sure of its value	Not worth the time and cost	Total	Percent reporting federal support
Total sample.....	73.8%	22.7%	3.5%	100.0%	4.0%
Teaching principals.....	75.6	23.3	1.1	100.0	1.4
Supervising principals.....	73.6	22.7	3.7	100.0	4.6

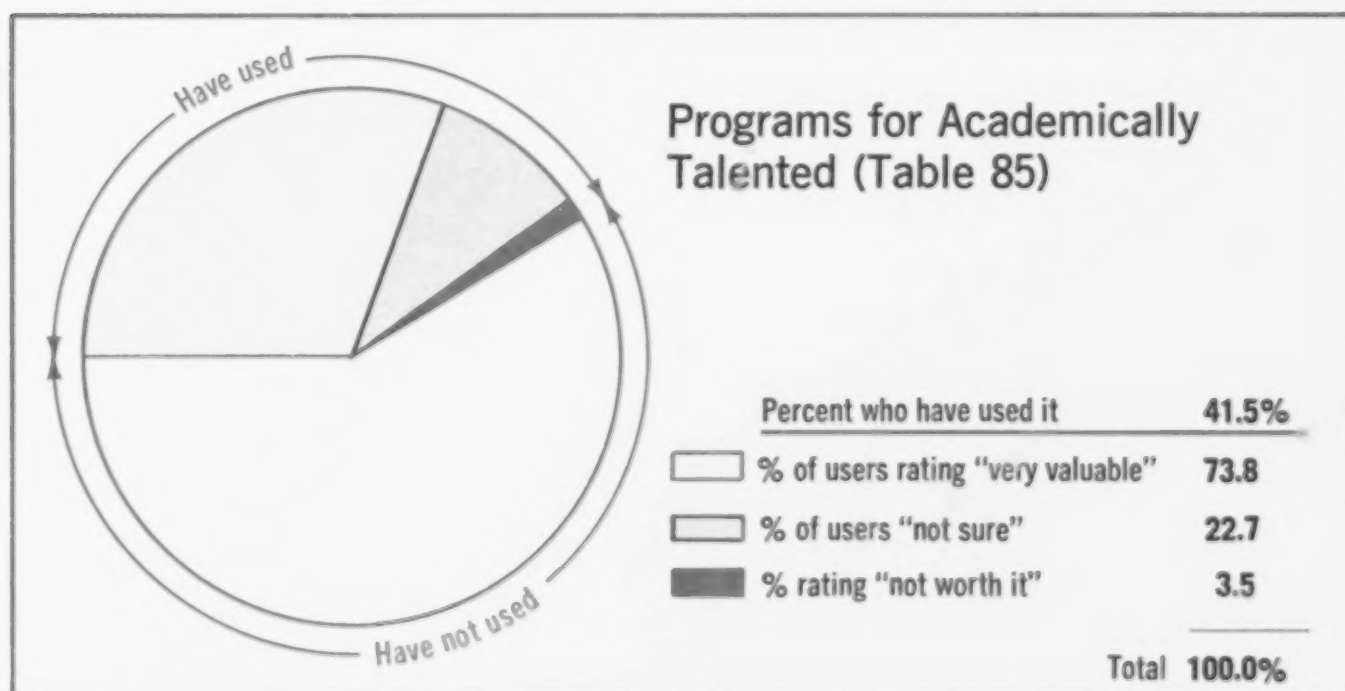
What is your evaluation of programs for the academically talented?

Approximately 42 in 100 of the principals in the total sample reported *experience with* programs for the academically talented pupils; teaching principals reported 22.8 percent with this experience and supervising principals, 45.5 percent. Certain summaries of the evaluations by those who have used the program are shown in Table 85.

An outstanding difference between Tables 84 and 85 is in the percents reporting federal support. About 42 in 100 principals in the total sample reported that their programs for preschool disadvantaged pupils

were supported by federal funds while in the case of programs for the academically talented, only 4 in 100 principals had federal funds. Obviously the difference reflects some of the primary goals of the federal aid to disadvantaged persons.

Among the users of programs for the academically talented the highest rating was found in larger proportions among supervising principals (78.0 percent) in the smallest systems (300-2,999 pupils) and in the largest systems (76.6 percent) rather than in the middle-size systems (3,000-24,999 pupils) where 69.3 percent said "very valuable." The fewer the years of experience as a principal the more likely users will rate the academically talented



HOW PRINCIPALS RATE SPECIAL SCHOOL PROGRAMS

Table 86. Users' Evaluations of Programs for the Mentally Handicapped

Special programs for mentally handicapped	It is very valuable	Not sure of its value	Not worth the time and cost	Total	Percent reporting federal support
Total sample.....	93.1%	6.5%	.4%	100.0%	10.4%
Teaching principals.....	87.6	12.4	.0	100.0	10.8
Supervising principals.....	93.9	5.7	.4	100.0	10.3

program as very valuable (the range was from 82.7 percent by those with less than 5 years of experience to 69.3 percent by those with 15 or more years experience as principals). Among the users women supervising principals are more likely to give the high rating to these special programs than are men supervising principals. Users in the Southeast and Northeast (about 78.0 percent) are more favorably inclined than are supervising principals in the Middle region (71.0 percent) and in the West (70.5 percent). No differences emerged on the basis of the level of college preparation of users.

What is your evaluation of special programs for the mentally handicapped?

Of the total sample 68.9 percent reported that they *had experience* with special programs for the mentally handicapped; the teaching principals reported 44.6 percent and supervising principals 74.2 percent. The evaluations of those who have used this type of program are shown in Table 86. About 10 in 100 principals reported that the program was supported by federal funds.

On the basis of school system size the supervising principals, who have used special programs for the mentally handi-

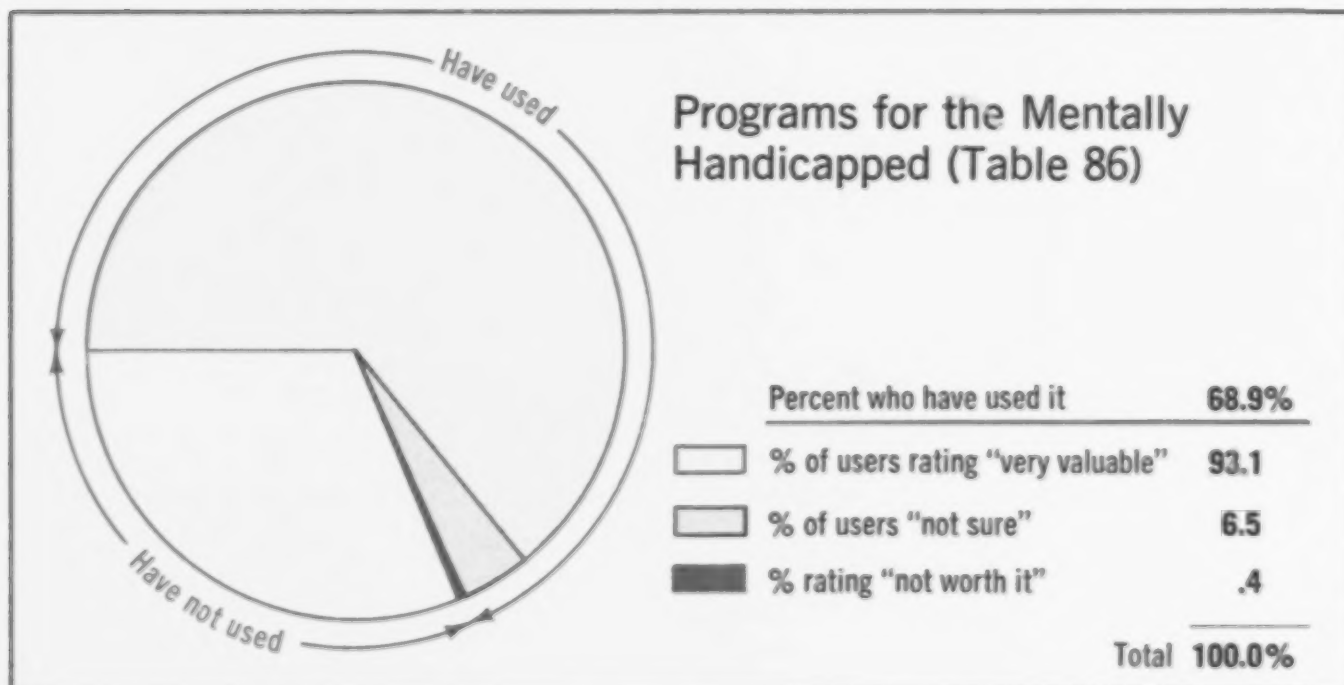


Table 87. Users' Evaluations of Programs for the Physically Handicapped

Programs for physically handicapped	It is very valuable	Not sure of its value	Not worth the time and cost	Total	Percent reporting federal support
Total sample.....	92.6%	6.9%	.5%	100.0%	5.4%
Teaching principals.....	89.8	10.2	.0	100.0	4.2
Supervising principals.....	92.9	6.4	.6	99.9	5.7

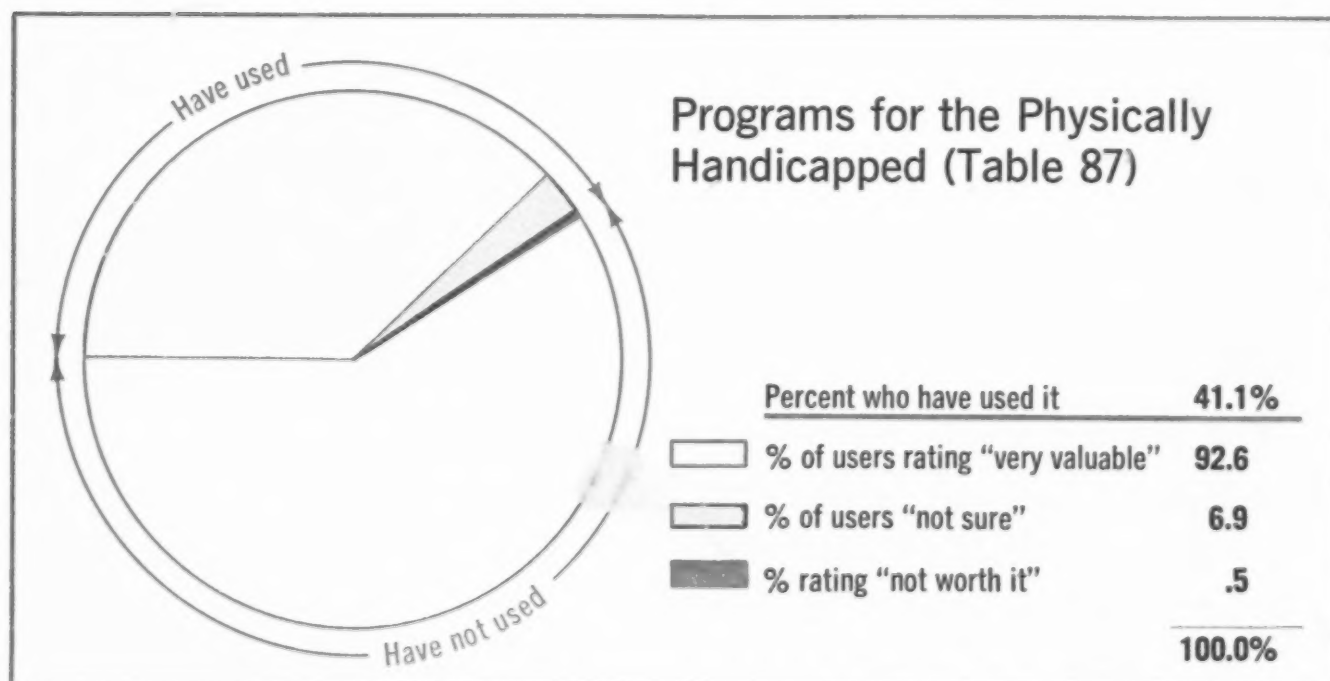
capped, showed highest ratings for such programs in the largest school systems (25,000 or more pupils) and lowest in the smallest systems (300-2,999 pupils)—the range being from 97.0 percent to 90.5 percent. Only 89.8 percent of the users among supervising principals in the Southeast gave the highest rating as compared with 93.9 percent in the West, 95.1 percent in the Northeast, and 95.0 percent in the Middle region.

Tabulations on the basis of years of experience as a principal, sex, and level of college preparation did not reveal any significant differences.

What is your evaluation of programs for the physically handicapped?

More than 40 in 100 of the total sample (41.1 percent) reported that they *had used* programs for the physically handicapped; teaching principals reported 27.0 percent as users of such programs; supervising principals, 44.2 percent. Only about 5 percent reported that such programs received federal financial support (Table 87).

Size of school system was a factor in the rating of supervising principals. The largest systems as compared with the smallest, a larger proportion of users reported this type of program as very valu-



HOW PRINCIPALS RATE SPECIAL SCHOOL PROGRAMS

Table 88. Users' Evaluations of After-School Recreational Programs for Pupils

After-school recreational programs for pupils	It is very valuable	Not sure of its value	Not worth the time and cost	Total	Percent reporting federal support
Total sample	71.1%	23.7%	5.3%	100.1%	6.0%
Teaching principals	67.5	28.5	4.1	100.1	3.3
Supervising principals	71.5	23.1	5.4	100.0	6.6

able. Users among women supervising principals (98.1 percent) were more likely to give the highest rating than were men supervising principals (91.1 percent). The users in all of the geographic regions gave higher proportions of top ratings to programs for the physically handicapped than did the users among supervising principals in the Southeast.

The level of college preparation of the supervising principals did not reveal any large differences in the proportions rating the program as very valuable.

What is your evaluation of after-school recreational programs?

This type of program included the plans to encourage hobby interests. Of the

sample as a whole 51.8 percent *had experience* with such programs; teaching principals reported 31.2 percent with such experience and supervising principals, 56.2 percent. Six percent of the users in the total sample reported these programs as supported by federal funds. Table 88 reports evaluations by those who had used after-school recreational programs.

Supervising principals with less than 5 years of experience (75.2 percent) are more likely to give a very valuable rating to after-school recreational programs than those with 15 or more years of experience in the principalships (69.1 percent). These are the opinions of those who *have used* such programs. Relatively more users among women supervising principals (77.2

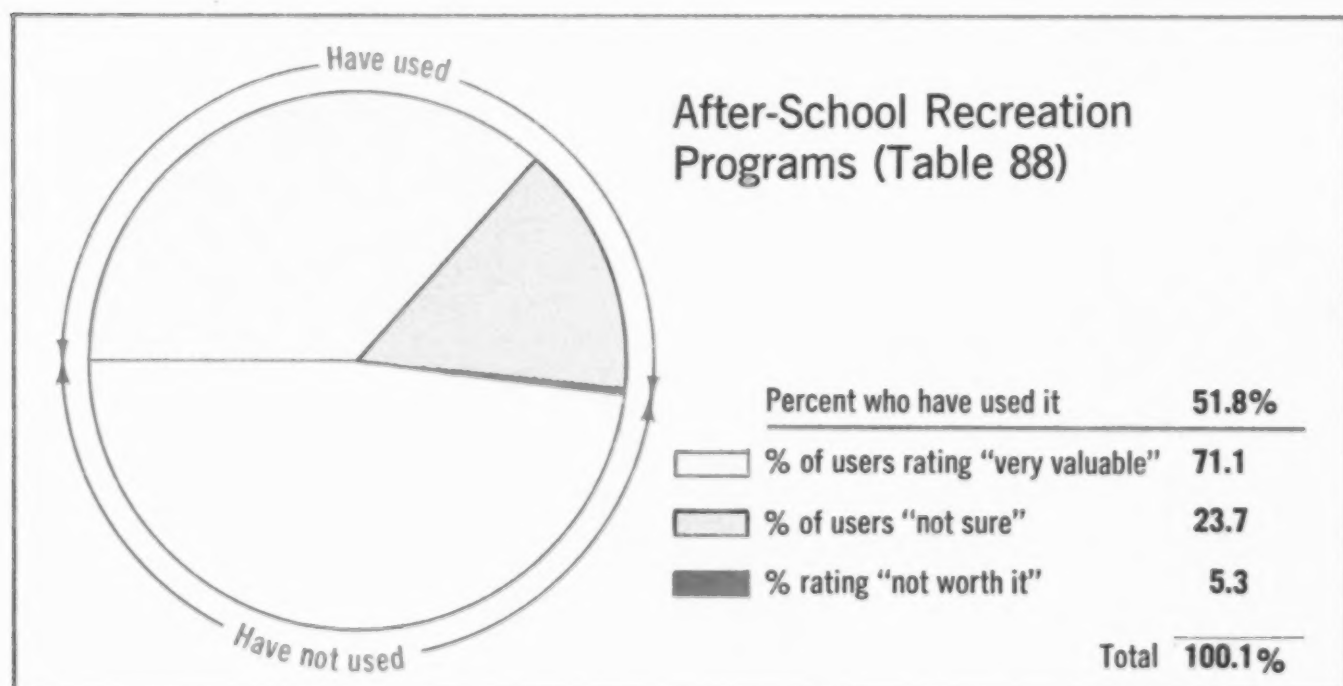


Table 89. Users' Evaluations of After-School Enrichment Classes

Enrichment classes after school or on Saturdays	It is very valuable	Not sure of its value	Not worth the time and cost	Total	Percent reporting federal support
Total sample.....	57.8%	33.7%	8.5%	100.0%	7.4%
Teaching principals.....	63.9	27.9	8.2	100.0	4.7
Supervising principals.....	57.1	34.4	8.5	100.0	8.0

percent) than men supervising principals (69.9 percent) rate the after-school recreational programs as very valuable. In the Northeast, Southeast, and Middle region about 73 percent of the users among supervising principals gave the very valuable rating as compared with only 66.6 percent in the West.

There were no significant differences in the proportions giving the highest rating on the basis of size of school system and on the basis of the college preparation of supervising principals.

What is your evaluation of after-school enrichment classes?

The item in the questionnaire referred to after-school and Saturday enrichment pro-

grams. Of the total sample only 25.4 percent reported *having used* such classes; teaching principals reported 15.5 percent with this experience and supervising principals, 27.6 percent. Relatively few of the users reported federal support—7.4 percent, total sample; 4.7 percent, teaching principals; and 8.0 percent, supervising principals. Evaluations by the users are shown in Table 89.

Among the sample as a whole, although only 25.4 percent had used after-school enrichment classes, 57.8 percent of these users considered this type of program very valuable. In the teaching principals group (with only 15.5 percent users), 63.9 percent of these users rated enrichment classes as very valuable. In the supervising principals

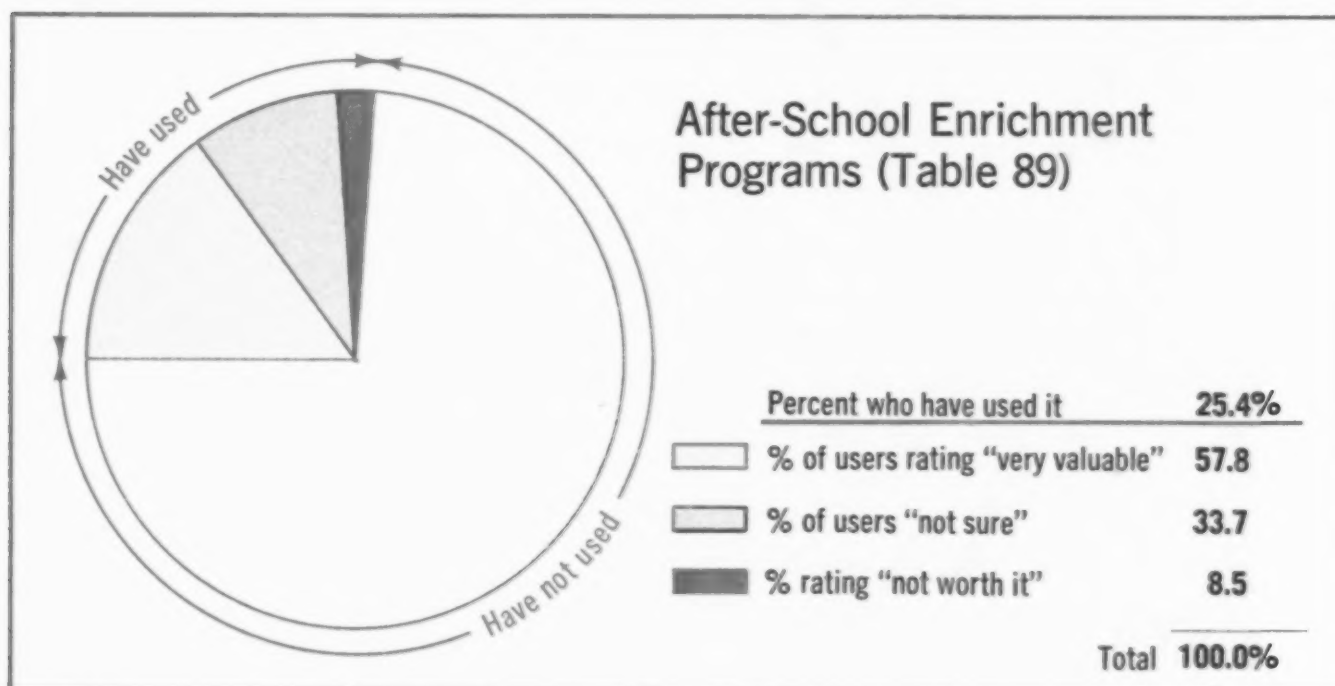


Table 90. Users' Evaluations of Summer Enrichment Programs

Summer enrichment programs	It is very valuable	Not sure of its value	Not worth the time and cost	Total	Percent reporting federal support
Total sample.....	75.9%	20.5%	3.5%	99.9%	20.5%
Teaching principals.....	73.1	21.6	5.3	100.0	22.7
Supervising principals.....	76.3	20.4	3.3	100.0	20.0

group (with 27.6 percent users), 57.1 percent of the users gave the highest rating. It should be noted, in comparison with the preceding tables in this chapter, that there was a higher proportion of skepticism about enrichment classes after school than there was for any of the other programs (combining not sure ratings and not worth the cost).

The very valuable rating is more likely to be given by users among supervising principals in the largest school systems, by those with less than 5 years of experience as principals, by women supervising principals, by users in the Southeast, and by those with the M.A. or higher college preparation.

What is your evaluation of summer enrichment programs?

Of the total sample 61.9 percent reported *having used* summer enrichment classes; teaching principals reported 42.6 percent as users and supervising principals, 66.1 percent. One-fifth of the users reported that these programs had been supported by federal funds. The evaluations by the users are shown in Table 90.

Almost 62.0 percent of the total sample had used summer enrichment classes and of this proportion 75.9 percent rated this type of program as very valuable (Table 90). The only special tabulations that showed significant differences in the percent of users giving the high rating were

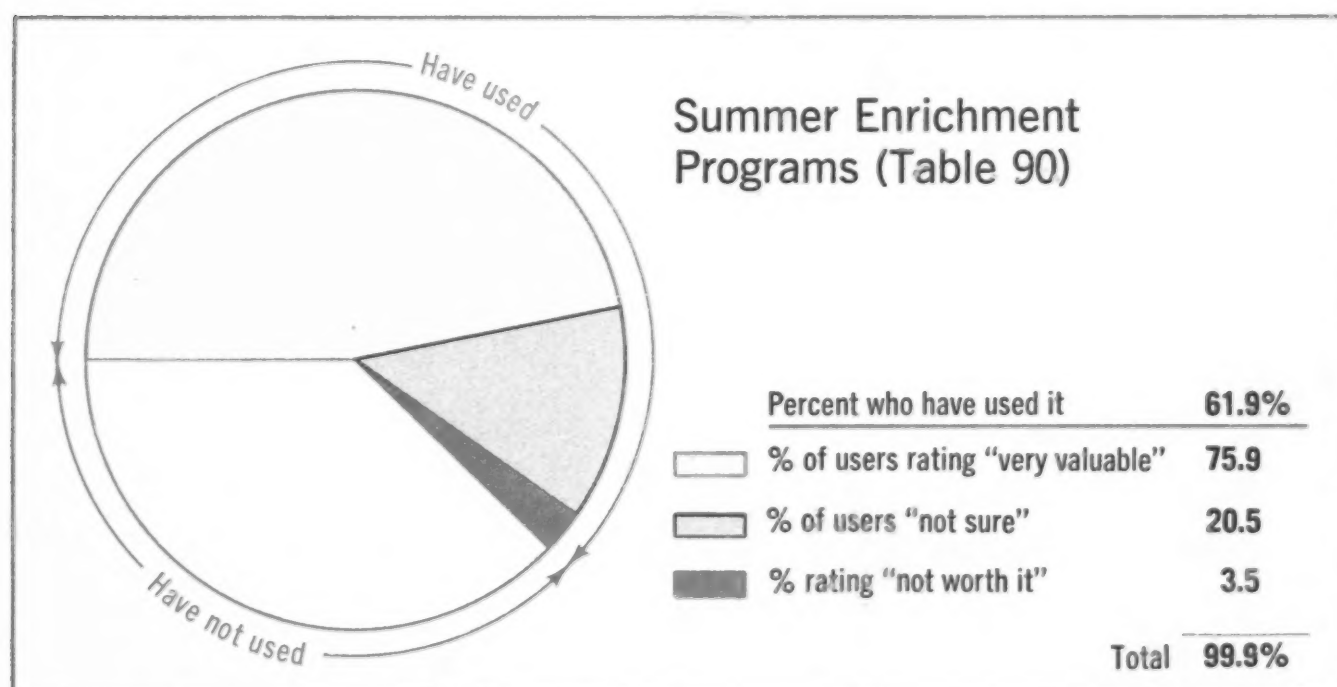


Table 91. Users' Evaluations of Summer Remedial Programs

Remedial and corrective programs in the summer	It is very valuable	Not sure of its value	Not worth the time and cost	Total	Percent reporting federal support
Total sample	72.4%	23.1%	4.5%	100.0%	29.5%
Teaching principals	75.3	20.5	4.2	100.0	29.3
Supervising principals	72.0	23.5	4.5	100.0	29.6

those based on level of college preparation (71.7 percent by those with the A.B. or less as compared with 76.8 percent by those with the M.A. or higher preparation) and 86.8 percent among supervising principals of the Southeast (Northeast, 74.0 percent; Middle region, 76.5 percent; and West, 71.3 percent). Tabulations on the basis of size of school system, years of experience as a principal, and sex of principals revealed no real differences in the proportions of users who considered summer enrichment plans as very valuable.

What is your evaluation of summer remedial programs?

The item in the questionnaire used both the terms "remedial" and "corrective"

summer programs. Of the total sample 72.9 percent reported *experience with* such summer programs; among teaching principals, 54.3 percent; and among supervising principals, 76.9 percent. Almost 30 percent of the users reported that these summer remedial programs received federal support. The evaluations of this type of program by those who have used it are shown in Table 91.

Of the 72.9 percent of the total sample reporting experience with summer remedial programs, 72.4 percent of these users rated this type of program as very valuable. Relatively more of the users among women supervising principals (76.2 percent) thought summer remedial programs were very valuable as compared with 70.8 per-

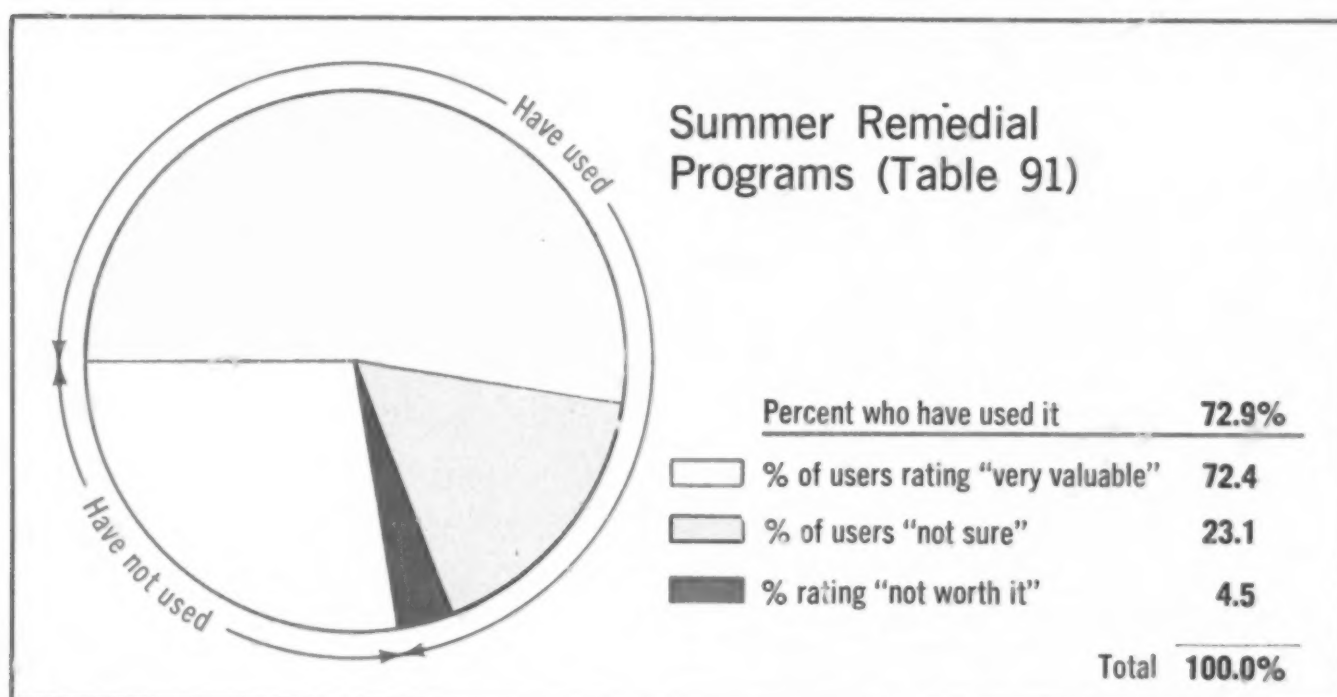


Table 92. Users' Evaluations of Evening Classes for Adults

Programs for adults in the evening	It is very valuable	Not sure of its value	Not worth the time and cost	Total	Percent reporting federal support
Total sample.....	78.7%	18.8%	2.6%	100.1%	11.1%
Teaching principals.....	71.6	25.5	2.8	99.9	12.4
Supervising principals.....	79.9	17.6	2.5	100.0	10.8

cent of the men supervising principals. Users among the supervising principals of the Southeast were more likely to give the very valuable rating (81.1 percent) than were users in the West (65.8 percent). The Northeast and the Middle region showed 72.2 percent giving the high rating. For supervising principals the rating proportions were not significantly different on the basis of size of the school system, years of experience as a principal, and level of college preparation.

What is your evaluation of evening classes for adults?

In the total sample 42 in 100 principals reported *experience with* adult evening programs; teaching principals reported

36.1 percent and supervising principals 43.3 percent. The evaluations by these users are shown in Table 92.

Among the users of adult evening programs, the very valuable rating is more likely to be given (83.2 percent) by the supervising principals in the middle-size school systems (3,000-24,999 pupils) than in the largest or in the smallest systems; by supervising principals with the M.A. or higher degree (80.4 percent); and by supervising principals in the Southeast (85.4 percent) as compared with the West. Years of experience as a principal and sex of principals did not appear to be influential factors upon the proportion of users giving the highest rating to adult evening programs.

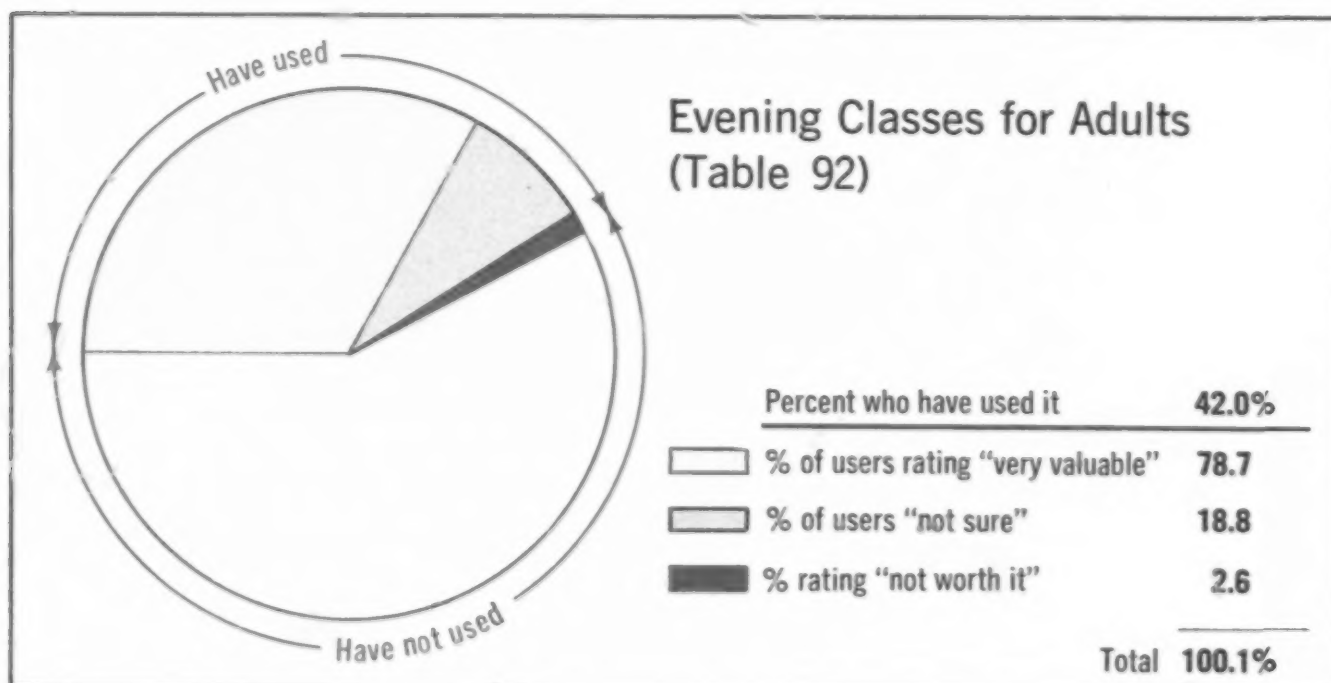


Table 93. Principals' Evaluation of the Reading Clinic

Reading clinic	It is very valuable	Not sure of its value	Not worth the time and cost	Total	Percent reporting federal support
Total sample.....	82.5%	16.5%	1.1%	100.1%	17.4%
Teaching principals.....	79.6	20.4	.0	100.0	14.3
Supervising principals.....	82.9	15.8	1.2	99.9	18.1

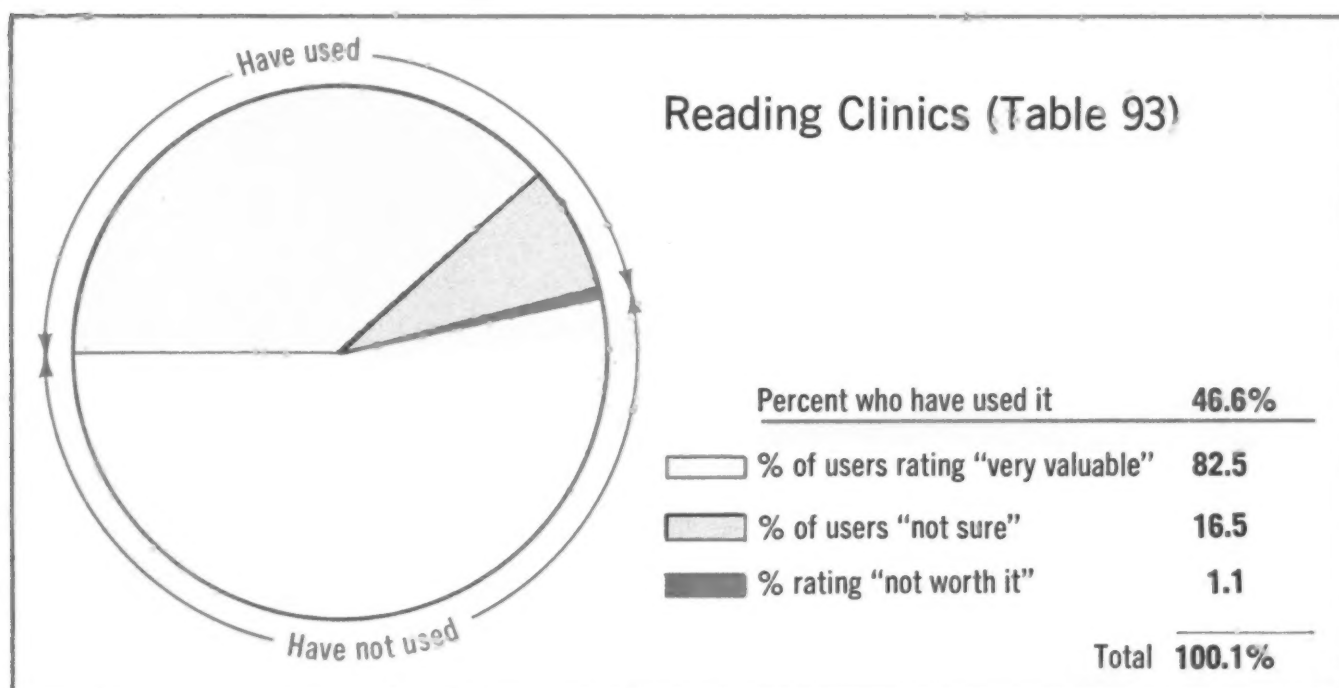
What is your evaluation of reading clinics?

Of the total sample 46.6 percent reported that they *had used* reading clinics; among teaching principals, 37.6 percent reported themselves as users; supervising principals, 48.5 percent. Slightly more than 17 percent of the users in the total sample reported that this type of program had received federal financial support. The evaluations by the users of the program are given in Table 93.

Of the nearly half of the total group of principals who had experience with reading clinics, more than 80 percent rated the program as very valuable. Relatively

more of the women supervising principals (91.6 percent of the users) thought that reading clinics were very valuable; 80.4 percent of the men supervising principals held a similar view among those who had experience with this type of program.

Special tabulations of the users' ratings by size of school system, years of experience as a principal, sex, level of college preparation, and geographic regions did not reveal any significant differences. Rather consistently, regardless of the basis of the tabulation, from 82.0 to 87.0 percent of the users among supervising principals agreed on the high rating for reading clinic programs.



HOW PRINCIPALS RATE SPECIAL SCHOOL PROGRAMS

Summary

Principals were asked to report on whether or not they had used ten types of specialized school programs. Those who had such programs were asked to rate them as to their value and to report on whether or not the programs had been supported by federal funds. A summary of the responses of the total sample of principals is given in Table 94.

Table 94 clearly indicates that the specialized programs listed have been substantially used, except the after-school enrichment classes. In every case at least 70 percent of the users rate the programs as very valuable. The highest proportion of users rating programs as not worth the time and cost were for the following:

After-school enrichment classes (8.5 percent)

After-school recreational programs (5.3 percent)

Summer remedial programs (4.5 percent)

Preschool disadvantaged pupil programs (4.5 percent)

In all other cases the proportion rating programs as "not worth it" were less than 4 percent on any specific item. On two

items—programs for the mentally handicapped and programs for the physically handicapped—less than 1 percent of the users were skeptical as to their value.

As shown in Table 94, those who make decisions about the programs which are to receive federal support showed a distinct preference for the following:

Preschool disadvantaged pupils (41.6 percent)

Summer remedial programs (29.5 percent)

Summer enrichment programs (20.5 percent)

Reading clinics (17.4 percent)

Programs least often supported (less than 10.0 percent) by federal funds were the following:

Academically talented pupils (4.0 percent)

Physically handicapped pupils (5.4 percent)

After-school recreation (6.0 percent)

After-school enrichment (7.4 percent)

In view of the proportion of high ratings among the users of most of the ten plans listed in this chapter, the question may be asked: "Should more of these programs be given federal support?"

Table 94. Summary of the Use, Value, and Extent of Federal Support of Certain School Programs (Total Sample)

Type of special program	Percent of total sample who have used it	Percent of users who rate it as very valuable	Percent of users reporting federal support
Preschool disadvantaged pupils.....	49.0%	72.1%	41.6%
Academically talented.....	41.5	73.8	4.0
Mentally handicapped.....	68.9	93.1	10.4
Physically handicapped.....	41.1	92.6	5.4
After-school recreation.....	51.8	71.1	6.0
After-school enrichment.....	25.4	57.8	7.4
Summer enrichment.....	61.9	75.9	20.5
Summer remedial.....	72.9	72.4	29.5
Adult evening classes.....	42.0	78.7	11.1
Reading clinics.....	46.6	82.5	17.4



THE FINANCIAL STATUS OF PRINCIPALS

A CONCLUSION of the 1958 survey was that during the years of the DESP surveys, that is 1928 through 1958, the relative economic status of the elementary school principals had declined as compared with the status of classroom teachers. One purpose of the present chapter is to indicate the high spots of the school year 1966-67.

The replies of principals will be presented under four major questions: (a) What is your regular salary for the school year 1966-67? (b) What is your estimated income from *school* employment in addition to your regular salary as principal? (c) What is your estimated income from *nonschool* employment? (d) What is your estimated total income from all sources?

In addition the chapter will present data from several salary studies of the NEA Research Division.

What is your regular salary for the school year 1966-67?

Respondents were asked to report on their regular salaries as principals for the

school year 1966-67. The percents reporting at each salary level and the medians are given in Table 95.

The median salary of the total sample was \$9,700 for 1966-67. For teaching principals it was \$6,900; for supervising principals, \$10,200. In the total sample 19.4 percent were paid less than \$7,500; 21.0 percent received \$12,500 or more.

In 1958 the comparable figures were: \$6,237, the median of the total sample; \$4,737, teaching principals; and \$6,600, supervising principals. Seventy-four percent of the total sample in 1958 were paid less than \$7,500 in 1958 (19.4 percent in 1968); only 1 percent received \$10,500 or more in 1958 (38.3 percent in 1966-67).

Table 95 shows a dollar difference favoring the largest school systems. Salary medians of supervising principals dropped progressively about \$2,000 from the largest to the middle-size systems and then another \$1,000 to the smallest school systems. More than 18 percent of the supervising principals in the largest systems

Table 95. Regular Salaries of Principals in 1966-67

Salary Level	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 and over	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
Less than \$5,000	1.9%	9.9%	.2%	.1%	.5%	.0%	.1%	.4%
\$5,000-\$7,499	17.5	56.6	9.0	9.7	6.7	1.3	7.9	17.7
\$7,500-\$9,999	33.7	31.5	34.2	36.3	26.4	16.2	35.5	47.7
\$10,000-\$12,499	25.9	1.6	31.1	30.3	34.1	35.4	32.8	24.6
\$12,500-\$14,999	15.3	.3	18.5	17.6	21.8	28.8	19.5	8.0
\$15,000 and over	5.7	.3	6.9	6.0	10.2	18.4	4.2	1.4
Total	100.0	100.2	99.9	100.0	99.7	100.1	100.0	99.8
Number	2,220	394	1,826	1,443	383	452	857	517
Median	\$ 9,700	\$ 6,900	\$10,200	\$10,100	\$11,000	\$12,289	\$10,200	\$ 9,100
Lowest	\$ 3,338	\$ 3,338	\$ 3,600	\$ 4,850	\$ 3,600	\$ 5,680	\$ 4,850	\$ 3,600
Highest	\$18,135	\$15,300	\$18,135	\$18,000	\$18,135	\$17,290	\$18,135	\$15,800

(25,000 or more pupils) were paid \$15,000 or more as compared with 4.2 percent in the middle-size systems (3,000-24,999 pupils), and 1.4 percent in the smallest systems (300-2,999 pupils). The lowest salary reported was \$3,600 in a small system; the highest was \$18,135 in a middle-size system.

Women supervising principals reported a median of \$11,000 as compared with \$10,100 for men supervising principals. As shown in Table 13 this difference is partly explained by the fact that women principals have a median experience of 11 years as principals as compared with a median of 9 years among men supervising principals.

The supervising principals group with less than 5 years in the principalship had a median salary of \$9,600. Those with 5-14 years experience as a principal,

\$10,700; those with 15 or more years in the principalship, \$10,300. The highest salary among supervising principals—\$18,135—was reported by a principal with 15 or more years of administrative experience. About 11 percent of the supervising principals with 5 or more years experience were paid \$14,500 or more as compared with only 3.3 percent among those with less than 5 years of experience.

Supervising principals with an A.B. degree or less of college preparation had a median salary of \$8,720 which was substantially lower than the median of \$10,362 among those with the M.A. or higher preparation. The median salary of those with the A.B. or less advanced about \$1,500 between 1958 and 1968; the median of those with the M.A. increased about \$3,000 (an estimate based on different patterns of tabulation between the two surveys).

By regions the highest median salary of \$11,991 was revealed among supervising principals in the Northeast. The West was second with a median of \$11,400; then the Middle region with \$10,000, and finally the Southeast with a median of \$8,600. The Southeast also reported the lowest salary—\$3,600—reported by a supervising principal.

Between 1956-57 and 1966-67 the median salaries of the total samples of principals showed an increase of \$3,463 or a gain of 55.5 percent. During approximately the same period the mean salary of all elementary school classroom teachers increased from an estimated \$3,770 in 1955-56 to \$6,119 in 1965-66. This was a gain of 62.3 percent.

What will you earn in addition to your regular salary from other school employment?

Principals were asked to report on their earnings above regular salary under two categories: (a) from other school employment (not included in regular salary as summarized in Table 95) and (b) from non-school employment. The first of these

will be summarized in Table 96; the second in Table 97.

Of the total sample 71.2 percent reported that they did not earn any additional income from school employment beyond their regular salaries as principals. Teaching principals and supervising principals reported none in about the same proportion. There was a difference between the men supervising principals who reported no additional income (68.3 percent) and the women supervising principals where 80.5 percent reported no additional income from school sources. The median amount (excluding those reporting no additional income) was approximately \$800 for the school year 1966-67.

A difference existed also between the largest school systems (25,000 or more pupils) and those with fewer than 25,000 pupils. In the largest systems 32.5 percent of the supervising principals reported some additional income from school employment (other than the principalship); in the smaller systems, about 27 percent.

Among supervising principals with the M.A. or higher degrees 30.1 percent had additional income from other school em-

Table 96. Principals' Income from School Employment Other than Regular Salary as Principal

Income	Total sample	Teaching principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	School system enrollment		
						25,000 and over	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
None.....	71.2%	70.5%	71.3%	68.3%	80.5%	67.5%	72.5%	72.9%
\$1-\$499.....	6.4	9.5	5.7	5.7	5.4	6.3	5.8	4.7
\$500-\$999.....	11.7	13.2	11.3	13.3	5.8	11.6	11.1	11.4
\$1,000-\$1,499.....	6.5	5.0	6.6	7.1	5.3	6.3	6.1	8.0
\$1,500 and over.....	4.4	1.8	4.9	5.6	2.7	8.2	4.3	2.9
Total.....	100.2%	100.0%	99.8%	100.0%	99.7%	99.9%	99.8%	99.9%
Median (excluding none)....	\$800	\$600	\$800	\$800	\$850	\$830	\$750	\$850
Number.....	1,750	281	1,469	1,105	364	1,379	681	409

THE FINANCIAL STATUS OF PRINCIPALS

ployment as compared with only 16.3 percent among those with the A.B. or less preparation. On a regional basis supervising principals in the Middle region are more likely to have additional income from school employment (35.3 percent) than in the other regions (Northeast, 28.4 percent; Southeast, 27.2 percent; and West, 22.0 percent).

What will you earn from nonschool employment?

Sixty-three percent of the total sample reported that they did not earn any additional income in 1966-67 from nonschool employment; teaching principals, 50.2 percent and supervising principals, 65.8 percent. Only 58.0 percent of the men supervising principals reported "none" as compared with 95.0 percent of the women supervising principals. Table 97 shows medians of \$1,000 (excluding those reporting none) in most columns except for women supervising principals (their median was \$710 in income from nonschool employment).

Twenty-eight percent of the supervising principals in the largest school systems

(25,000 or more pupils) reported income from nonschool employment; in the middle-size systems (3,000-24,999 pupils), 33.3 percent; in the smallest systems (300-2,999 pupils), 40.3 percent. Nonschool employment on the part of supervising principals is more likely to occur in the smaller school systems.

Supervising principals with the M.A. degree or higher preparation are more likely to have income from nonschool employment than those with the A.B. or less preparation—35.1 percent as compared with 26.4 percent. Supervising principals in the Middle region (37.5 percent), in the Southeast (35.9 percent), and in the West (34.7 percent) are more likely to earn additional income from nonschool employment than are supervising principals in the Northeast (27.6 percent).

The question on earnings beyond the regular salary as principal was asked in a somewhat different way in 1958 than it was in 1968. In 1958 principals were asked to report their earnings "from outside employment" which corresponds in general with the 1968 request for a report on "nonschool employment beyond the regular

Table 97. Principals' Income from Nonschool Employment

Income	Supervising principals							
	Total sample	Teaching principals	School system enrollment					
			All	Men	Women	25,000 and over	3,000 to 24,999	300 to 2,999
None	63.0%	50.2%	65.8%	58.0%	95.0%	72.0%	66.7%	59.7%
\$1-\$499	6.2	6.4	6.2	7.4	1.6	4.3	6.5	7.5
\$500-\$999	9.6	13.6	8.7	10.5	1.6	8.3	8.4	9.1
\$1,000-\$1,499	8.5	11.6	7.9	9.7	1.2	5.0	8.8	8.8
\$1,500 and over	12.7	18.3	11.4	14.4	.4	10.6	9.6	15.0
Total	100.0%	100.1%	100.0%	100.0%	99.8%	100.2%	100.0%	100.1%
Median (excluding none)	\$1,000	\$1,000	\$1,000	\$1,000	\$710	\$1,000	\$1,000	\$1,000
Number	1,378	251	1,127	889	238	264	523	340

salary." In the 1958 survey 61 percent of the men supervising principals reported outside earnings as compared with 42.0 percent reporting income from *nonschool* employment in 1968; 10 percent of the women supervising principals reported outside earnings in 1958 as compared with 5 percent reporting income from *nonschool* employment in 1968. This decline may be explained in part by the fact that 31.7 percent of the men supervising principals and 19.5 percent of the women supervising principals reported in 1968 that they had earnings from *school* employment in addition to their regular salaries as principals (see Table 96). The question on extra *school* employment was not asked in 1958. The impression remains, however, that principals today are doing less moonlighting than they did in 1958.

What is your total income for the school year 1966-67 from all employment?

The purpose of this section is to summarize the total earnings of principals from their regular salary as principals, from other *school* employment, and from *non-school* employment. It should be noted that the questionnaire emphasized "employment" and, for that reason, does not include income from investments, gifts, and other nonemployment sources. In contrast with Table 95 (salary as a principal) Table 98 can be considered "the principal's financial status from all types of employment." A small difference (less than 1 percent) between the percents on the various steps in the two tables arises from the fact that Table 98 does not include principals who failed to report any of the three

Table 98. Total Income of Principals from All Types of Employment

Income	Total sample	Teaching Principals	Supervising principals					
			All	Men	Women	Experience as principal		
						Less than 5 years	5-14 years	15 or more years
Less than \$5,000	1.1%	6.7%	.1%	.2%	.0%	.5%	.0%	.0%
\$5,000-\$7,499	11.2	47.8	4.9	5.1	4.2	7.0	3.1	5.6
\$7,500-\$9,999	32.2	41.7	30.4	32.4	24.5	43.0	25.5	28.0
\$10,000-\$12,499	26.6	1.5	31.0	29.6	35.4	26.3	33.3	31.0
\$12,500-\$14,999	19.5	2.2	22.4	21.7	24.6	16.5	24.6	23.9
\$15,000 and over	9.6	.0	11.2	11.2	11.2	6.6	13.6	11.5
Total	100.2%	99.9%	100.0%	100.2%	99.9%	99.9%	100.1%	100.0%
Number reporting	921	134	787	600	187	198	361	226
Median	\$10,200	\$ 7,377	\$10,940	\$10,700	\$11,500	\$ 9,910	\$11,655	\$11,000
Lowest	\$ 3,400	\$ 3,400	\$ 4,850	\$ 4,850	\$ 5,150	\$ 4,850	\$ 5,720	\$ 5,680
Highest	\$23,260	\$13,900	\$23,260	\$23,260	\$18,000	\$23,260	\$19,900	\$20,851

items (regular salary, income from *other* school employment, and income from *non-school* employment).

In the total sample 12.3 percent had *total* employment incomes below \$7,500 (19.4 percent received principals' salaries of less than \$7,500). Thus about 7 percent of the total sample raised themselves to \$7,500 or more through extra school employment and by nonschool employment. Between the two tables the median for the total sample advanced \$500—that is, from \$9,700 to \$10,200.

Supervising principals with less than 5 years of experience as a principal revealed a median *total income* of \$9,910 as compared with medians of \$11,000 and \$11,655 for the two groups with more than 5 years of experience (Table 98).

What have been the major trends in salaries paid and in salary schedules?

From 1922-23 to the present the NEA Research Division has made periodic and systematic studies of salaries paid and of salary schedules in urban school systems. Continuous trends cannot be identified for

the year since 1922-23 because the basis for classifying the data was changed in 1960-61 from the population of the communities to the total pupil enrollment in school systems. For this reason the present section provides only a few highlights. Attention is called to the fact that certain tables report data on professional personnel in *all* urban school systems while other tables summarize data for school systems above a certain size (e.g. 12,000 enrollment).

Trends in salaries paid

The primary purpose of Table 99 is to show the general trends in the average salaries (medians or means) of teaching elementary school principals, supervising elementary school principals, and instructional staff periodically between 1926-27 and 1966-67. For each type of position, taking the 1926-27 figure as a base, the ratios show that the median of teaching principals' salaries has increased slightly more than 400 percent on the average during the past 40 years. Supervising principals' salaries also, on the average, increased about 400 percent. During the same 40

Table 99. Trends in Salaries Paid between 1926-27 and 1966-67

Position	1926-27 ^a		1946-47		1956-57		1966-67	
	Amount	Base	Amount	Ratio with 1926-27	Amount	Ratio with 1926-27	Amount	Ratio with 1926-27
Teaching elementary school principals... (Medians)	\$1,666	100	\$2,578	155	\$4,737	284	\$ 6,900	414
Supervising elementary school principals... (Medians)	2,839	100	3,622	128	6,600	232	10,200	398
Instructional staff ^b ... (Means)	1,320	100	2,254	171	4,350	330	7,129	540

^a The 1926-27 column, although taken from the 1928 DESP yearbook, is based on the NEA Research Division study for that year. All other median salaries for principals are from the DESP reports for 1948, 1952, and 1968.

^b The mean salaries for instructional staff have been taken from the periodic studies of the U.S. Office of Education. The term includes classroom teachers, principals, supervisors, and other instructional staff in elementary and secondary schools. The average salary of all classroom teachers would be about \$200 below the average of the instructional staff for most years shown.

years the average (mean) salary of instructional staff increased substantially more than 500 percent. Since classroom teachers make up a majority of the instructional staff, the average advance of classroom teachers' salaries can be estimated as 500 percent. The basic differences are supported by numerous studies which show that the ratio between the average urban salaries of elementary school classroom teachers and elementary school principals, which stood at 100 to 175 in the 1930's, has recently become approximately 100 to 140.

Trends since 1962-63 are shown in Table 100. These are estimated average or mean salaries as calculated by the NEA Research Division. During this five-year period the mean salary of all classroom teachers increased 20 percent; all elementary school principals increased 25 percent. Other administrators had similar percent increases. The right-hand column shows the relationship between the 1966-67 averages with the classroom teacher average at a base of 100. On the average, the salary of elementary school principals is approximately

44 percent higher than the salary of all classroom teachers.

Table 101 shows the median salaries for certain professional positions in school systems enrolling 12,000 or more pupils. The medians and means in this table are higher than in Table 100 since that table presents data for *all* operating school systems. Using the average classroom teacher's salary as a base of 100 the mean elementary school supervising principal's salary ratio is 162 and the median is 167 in these school systems. The mean and median salaries of senior high school principals are between 80 and 90 percent higher than the respective mean and median salaries of all classroom teachers in these school systems. The mean and median salaries of assistant elementary school principals are higher than might be expected since 62 percent of these positions are in the largest school systems where salaries are generally higher than in the other systems included in the table.

Relationships between salary schedules of classroom teachers and of supervising principals. The NEA Research Division has

Table 100. Mean Salaries Paid in 1962-63, 1964-65, and 1966-67 in All Operating Public School Systems

Position	Mean salary by school years			Percent of gain between 1962-63 and 1966-67	Ratio in 1966-67 (classroom teachers = 100)
	1962-63	1964-65	1966-67		
Elementary and secondary classroom teachers.....	\$5,747	\$ 6,222	\$ 6,905	20%	100
Elementary school principals (teaching and supervising).....	7,972	8,903	9,957	25%	144
Junior high school principals.....	9,176	10,253	11,226	22%	163
Senior high school principals.....	8,473	9,457	10,507	24%	152
Superintendents of schools.....	10,186	11,227	12,975	27%	188
School librarians.....	6,145	6,721	7,006	14%	101
School nurses.....	5,650	6,215	6,664	18%	97

Source: National Education Association, Research Division. *Twenty-third Biennial Salary Survey of Public-School Professional Personnel, 1966-67: National Data*. Research Report 1967-R11. Washington, D.C., the Association, p. 13-16, and 26. Last two columns independently calculated by DESP.

Table 101. Salaries Paid to Professional Staff in Urban School Systems with 12,000 or More Pupils, 1966-67

Type of position	Mean		Median	
	Amount	Ratio (class-room teacher median = 100)	Amount	Ratio (class-room teacher median = 100)
All classroom teachers.....	\$ 7,428	100	\$ 7,084	100
Elementary school supervising principals.....	12,009	162	11,838	167
Elementary school assistant principals.....	10,936	147	11,228	158
Junior high school principals.....	12,903	174	12,602	178
Senior high school principals.....	13,692	184	13,576	192

Source: National Education Association, Research Division. *Twenty-third Biennial Salary Survey of Public-School Professional Personnel, 1966-67: Data for Systems with Enrollments of 12,000 or More*. Research Report 1967-R12. Tables A, J, K, L, and O. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1967.

identified three types of relationship between the salary schedules of classroom teachers and those of principals. For years principals' schedules were completely independent of the schedules for teachers. In many communities the pattern of adding a differential amount to the teachers' schedule (often by individual negotiation of the principal) was considered good practice. Increasingly, in recent years, the ratio differential has been used (e.g. teacher's salary equals 100, then the principal's salary might be 125, 130, etc.). The local ratio may be applied to the step where the principal would fall on the teachers' schedule in terms of his teaching experience and preparation, or it might be applied to the teachers' scheduled top maximum, or it might be applied to the teachers' scheduled maximum for the master's degree.

Table 102 indicates that the ratio pattern has increased in frequency of use during the years from 1958-59 to 1966-67. Of the salary schedules analyzed by the NEA Research Division the proportion of ratio schedules for principals has more than doubled during the past eight years. Whether this pattern will continue to expand under the so-called "professional

negotiation contracts," now being widely adopted, is a moot question.

Bases for variations in principals' salary schedules. The single schedule—that is, basing salary levels primarily upon educational preparation and years of experience—is now almost universal in public school systems for the payment of classroom teachers' salaries. Although the plan was suggested in the DESP report of the 1928 survey as a possible basis for paying the salaries of supervising principals in elementary schools, junior high schools, and senior high schools, the idea had caught on in only about 16 percent of the urban systems by 1966-67 (Table 103). Thirty-nine percent of the largest school systems (with 100,000 or more pupils) reported using the single schedule for all supervising principals. The plan is least popular in the school systems between 12,000 and 49,999 in pupil enrollment.

The majority of school systems provide independent salary schedules for principals at the three levels of elementary schools, junior high schools, and senior high schools (Table 103). More than three-fourths (78.10 percent) of the 667 districts reporting to the NEA Research Division

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP IN 1968

Table 102. Relationship Between the Salary Schedules of Supervising Principals of Elementary Schools, Junior High Schools, and Senior High Schools and the Salary Schedules of Classroom Teachers

Relationship to the salary schedule for classroom teachers by years	Percent of school systems with each type of relationship within each enrollment stratum					Total
	1— 100,000 or more	2— 50,000- 99,000	3— 25,000- 49,999	4— 12,000- 24,999	5— 6,000- 11,999	
1958-59 ^a						
Independent.....	67%	77%	44%	52%	44%	52%
Dollar differential.....	25	13	29	26	25	24
Ratio differential.....	8	10	27	22	31	24
Total.....	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Number of school systems reporting.....	12	30	34	66	108	250
1966-67 ^b						
Independent.....	48%	40%	40%	30%	30%	32%
Dollar differential.....	17	12	23	13	10	13
Ratio differential.....	35	48	37	57	60	55
Total.....	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
Number of school systems reporting.....	23	42	62	202	338	667

Sources: ^a Dawson, Mary. "Salaries of Elementary School Principals." *National Elementary Principal* 46: 18; April 1967.
^b National Education Association, Research Division. *Salary Schedules for Administrative Personnel, 1966-67*. Research Report 1967-R3, Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1967. Table 16, p. 33.

Table 103. Basis for Salary Variances Among Supervising Principals in Urban School Systems, 1966-67

Stratum	Levels (e.g. elementary)			Single schedule for principals	Total number of systems reporting
	One ^a	Two	Three		
1—100,000 or more pupils.....	...	4	10	9	23
2—50,000-99,999.....	1	5	28	8	42
3—25,000-49,999.....	1	11	46	4	62
4—12,000-24,999.....	11	21	145	25	202
5—6,000-11,999.....	29	33	218	58	338
Total number.....	42	74	447	104	667
Percent.....	6.29%	11.09%	67.01%	15.59%	99.98%

^a The one level districts were either those with elementary schools only or high schools only. Two level salary schedules were chiefly in districts with elementary schools and high schools, each level with its own schedule. Three level schedules were those with independent schedules for principals of elementary schools, junior high schools, and senior high schools. Single schedules were used in districts that had two or three levels of schools. For the source see citation in the footnote of Table 104.

in 1966-67 had schedules for two or three school levels—that is, elementary schools and high schools or elementary schools, junior high schools, and senior high schools.

Table 104 shows that in the 667 schedules examined by the NEA Research Division, 53.37 percent did not use the size of the school unit in determining salary levels of supervising principals of elementary schools, junior high schools, and senior high schools. The most common type of measure of size was the number of teachers (23.39 percent) and the second most common basis was enrollment.

Recommendations on principals' salary schedules. A number of local and state education and principals' associations have issued general recommendations with regard to the bases for principals' salary schedules. The latest official statement of the NEA Department of Elementary School Principals was published in October 1959 as follows:

1. Salaries for elementary school principals should be based on a written schedule.

2. Salaries for all principals—elementary, junior high, and senior high school—should be determined under the provisions of the same schedule.

3. Salary schedules for school principals should provide for a substantial ratio differential over the maximum salaries paid teachers.

4. Advanced preparation and administrative experience should be recognized in the salary schedule for principals.

5. Services and duties required of the principal extending beyond the regular school year should be recognized and compensated.*

As shown in Table 102 the plan of a ratio differential between the salaries of classroom teachers and principals was reported by 55 percent of the 667 urban school systems filing information with the NEA Research Division in 1966-67. The "typical" ratio, as shown by the median relationship between the maximum salary scheduled for classroom teachers and the maximum scheduled for elementary school principals, ranged from 100 to 140 in the

Table 104. Administrators' Salary Schedules Using the Size of the School Unit as a Basis for Salary Variations, 1966-67

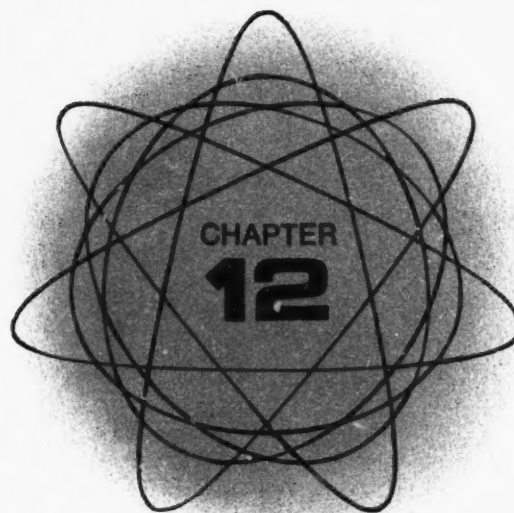
Type of measure of size of unit	Number of systems by pupil enrollment [†]					Total	
	1— 100,000 or more	2— 50,000- 99,999	3— 25,000- 49,999	4— 12,000- 24,999	5— 6,000- 11,999	Number	Percent
Enrollment.....	7	14	16	32	36	105	15.74%
ADA.....	1	2	0	9	3	15	2.25
Number of teachers.....	4	7	18	44	83	156	23.39
Number of classrooms.....	1	1	0	3	13	18	2.70
Other ^a	3	1	7	1	5	17	2.55
Size not used ^b	7	17	21	113	198	356	53.37
Total.....	23	42	62	202	338	667	100.00%

Source: National Education Association, Research Division. *Salary Schedules for Administrative Personnel*. Research Report 1967-R.3. p. 34-115. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1967. ^a This item includes the schedules where the exact basis was not clearly stated in the schedule. ^b This item includes the schedules where apparently the size of the school unit was not used in establishing salary levels but other bases might be used (e.g. single schedule). The term "administrator" means supervising principals of elementary schools, junior high schools, or senior high schools.

largest systems (100,000 or more enrollment) to 100 to 130 in the smallest systems (6,000-11,999 pupils).†

In an opinion poll of representative DESP members, made in January 1968, 48 percent of the 367 respondents reported that their school systems were now using (or up to recently had used) a teacher-principal salary ratio plan. Forty-seven percent of the respondents also reported

that they were working under a professional negotiation contract. When asked about the effect professional negotiations had had on the ratio plan 4 percent said that the plan had been abolished; 12 percent reported that the ratio was now *less favorable* to principals; 16 percent reported that it was now *better* for principals; 49 percent reported no changes made in the ratio; and 19 percent did not answer.‡



WHAT TO COME, IN YOURS AND MY DISCHARGE

MANY READERS of this 1968 survey will be inclined to say: "So much for the past (even 1966-67 has some of the elements of the distant past)—but what about the future?" The refuge of the statistician, in defending a status study, is to reply: "But I was exploring the recent past and the present; it's up to you to handle the future." And so it is.

The 1928 study of the principalship, on the basis of the findings, made substantial recommendations for the future, some of which have become realities. The 1948, 1958, and 1968 surveys clearly show that other improvements were made as the decades advanced. For example, the typical preparation of principals jumped from less than the A.B. degree in 1928 to the M.A. degree or even higher in 1968. This change, merely an illustration of many,

This chapter contains a great deal of opinion and speculation by the director of the survey. He was asked to write this type of chapter by the DESP Publications Advisory Committee.

did not come about by law or fiat; it was largely the product of the professional urge to be better qualified on the part of those who were principals and by those who aspired to become principals. Basically, this is the way that every profession has advanced—"To the stars through difficulties," as the state motto of Kansas reminds us.

Change has taken place

As one looks over the four DESP surveys he finds a number of changes and trends that are encouraging. While change alone may not prove progress it does usually indicate flexibility and vitality. If progress has been possible in the past 40 years, then progress is possible in the next decades. Most of the comparisons that will be made in this chapter have to do with the responses of supervising principals in the 1958 and the 1968 surveys.

Personal characteristics. The highlights of personal characteristics, as shown by the

median responses, show very little change in the past decade. The median age of men supervising principals continues to revolve around 43 to 44 years of age; the median age of women supervising principals has advanced from 52 years to 56 years. In years of total experience in education, years of classroom experience, years of experience as principals, and years in the present school system the past ten years have produced little change. This stability in the medians suggests a steady, gradual turnover in those who serve as principals. Youth is entering in similar proportions to the number of older principals who are retiring. In the opinions of many of us, this is as it should be.

Proportions of men and women. The 1958 report expressed some concern that the proportion of men supervising principals was continuing to increase with a corresponding decline in the proportion of women principals. The proportions had been 55 percent women and 45 percent men in 1928 and in 1948 the shift was to 59 percent men and 41 percent women. In 1958, 62 percent were men and 38 percent were women. By 1968 the proportions have reached 77.6 percent men and 22.4 percent women.

Nearly everyone would agree with the authors of the 1958 survey that "if individual competence is to be the main qualification for supervising principalship, it is difficult to understand why the proportion of men continues to increase." Here we must enter the realm of speculation. Undoubtedly, school systems and the Department of Elementary School Principals (NEA) have done much to magnify the principalship as a position worthy of the talents of the most capable young men. This picture was not commonly presented in the 1920's and 1930's when men student teachers often were advised to seek the alleged status and the better salaries of secondary school teaching.

An important factor in the trend has been the steady improvement of salaries of elementary school classroom teachers under the widespread adoption of the so-called preparation or "single" schedule. Although, through most of the past 40 years, the salaries of classroom teachers have advanced faster than those of administrators, the salary opportunities of elementary school principals have moved to higher levels that now have great appeal for many young men.

Additional evidence is found in the responses in the 1968 survey to the question: "What was your primary reason for becoming a principal?" Thirty-five percent of the supervising principals replied that they "considered the principalship especially important" (27 percent of the women); 25 percent of the men "preferred administration and supervision to classroom teaching" (7.6 percent of the women); 23 percent of the men said that they "needed a larger income." On this latter point, our data show that 95 percent of the men supervising principals are married as compared with 44 percent of the women supervising principals.

Apparently a number of tangible and intangible factors, some of which we have identified, are causing the trend toward an ever increasing number of men in the supervising principalship. If the trend is to be changed, then colleges of teacher education will find it necessary to initiate intensive efforts to prepare a generation of young women who will find the principalship and school administration as attractive as apparently these activities have become to many young men. This report does not take sides on the issue.

Office facilities and staff. Ever since the 1928 DESP yearbook the Department has expressed concern that a majority of principals were expected to function effectively with poorly planned and inadequately equipped offices, with few clerical assist-

ants, and usually without the administrative help of an assistant principal. These shortages have forced many principals to devote time to duties that less well prepared persons could perform and, even more serious, gave principals little incentive to plan and expand their instructional interests.

In 1928 most supervising principals had offices consisting of one room and with relatively little equipment. There was often no space for private conferences with teachers, parents, and pupils and limited work spaces for secretarial staff and the assistant principal, if any. Later surveys indicated some improvement. By 1958, 14 percent of the supervising principals thought their offices were "tip top"; an additional 48 percent rated their offices as satisfactory in both space and equipment. This 1968 survey shows 18 percent of the supervising principals rating their offices as exceptionally good and 37 percent rating them as satisfactory. The total of the satisfactory and better ratings show a loss of 7 percent between 1958 and 1968. This difference may indicate that principals in 1968 are a bit more choosy about what constitutes a really efficient office setup. Still it is amazing that 12 percent reported in 1968 that their offices were only large enough for a desk; 4 percent said they did not have a real office at all. Undoubtedly, there has been some improvement in the overall situation but the gains in up-to-date office facilities continue to come too slowly.

When asked in 1968 to report the major "roadblock" to the ideal distribution of their time, 25 percent of the supervising principals reported a lack of clerical help. Nine percent of the supervising principals reported that they did not have any clerical help; 12 percent had only the equivalent of a half-time clerk; 58 percent had one full-time clerk; and 21 percent had the equivalent of more than one clerk. The overall situation has improved since

1958 when 23 percent had no clerical help; 19 percent had half-time help; 47 percent had one full-time clerk; and 11 percent had the equivalent of more than one clerk. Gradually more clerical help is being provided in elementary schools but two questions remain: What is the preparation of such help? and, Is the number of clerks advancing in relation to the need for clerical help both by principals and by classroom teachers? There is some evidence on the first question. Nearly two-thirds of the principals reported that their clerks were high school graduates with secretarial training; almost 20 percent said that their staffs had business college or even college special training; about 15 percent indicated that their staffs had little or no secretarial training. Regrettably—especially in 1968—almost 1 in 4 supervising principals reported lack of clerical help as a major block in the most effective use of their work time. Undoubtedly many of them were also thinking of how additional clerks could reduce the clerical burdens upon the classroom teachers as well as upon themselves.

Almost 26 percent of the supervising principals in 1968 felt that their work was impaired because of a lack of administrative assistance. Only 10 percent reported that they had a full-time assistant principal. Fifty-eight percent of those with assistant principals said that the assistant's major function was to work with all types of problems (instructional and administrative); 20 percent of the assistant principals concentrated on supervision and curriculum; 13 percent gave major time to pupil personnel; 6 percent were limited to administrative and clerical tasks. The question may be raised: "If more assistant principals gave major time to a special phase of the elementary school, would it help make a better case for the employment of more persons in this capacity?" This question does not imply that the as-

sistant principal should not continue to have certain general administrative and executive duties. It does suggest that a degree of specialization might make notable improvement in educational opportunities and, at the same time, alleviate the excessive load of multiple duties which respondents have reported in all DESP surveys of the principalship.

Resource personnel. For many years school systems have recognized the need for various supervisory and technical personnel to serve the staffs and pupils of all schools. The most universal type reported in both the 1958 and the 1968 surveys was the school nurse. Today, almost 87 percent of the supervising principals reported that a nurse was available—either full-time or part-time.

A comparison between the 1958 and the 1968 surveys, on the basis of the percent of principals reporting each type of resource personnel, suggests that there has been a decrease in the number of supervisors in the fields of music, art, and physical education. There appear to be fewer opportunities to call upon school physicians, dentists, and general supervisors.

The data suggest that there has been an increase in the availability of speech specialists, psychologists, reading specialists, specialists in science, and librarians. Visiting teachers and teachers of the homebound appear to have held their own during the past decade.

Several other types of resource persons, not clearly identified in the 1958 survey, now are available in substantial numbers according to the 1968 replies. Among these are the following: audiovisual specialist (reported by 47 percent of the supervising principals); testing specialist (46 percent); curriculum specialist (44 percent); guidance specialist (42 percent); specialist for exceptional children (39 percent); specialist in foreign languages (21 percent); and research specialist (21 per-

cent). Although some of these types existed in 1958 or even earlier, many of these positions reflect recent changes in the goals and services of elementary schools.

The number and variety of the resource persons reported as available to principals convey a firsthand impression of considerable reinforcement of the principal confronted by many of today's demands upon education. Yet one can hazard the guess that the expertness represented by the resource personnel is not available in sufficient number to meet fully the needs of many schools. This is partly speculation but let us consider a few examples of types of expertness which supervising principals reported as *not available* either full-time or part-time: school physician (67 percent); specialist for exceptional children (61 percent); specialist in guidance (58 percent); specialist on the curriculum (56 percent); specialist in testing (54 percent); specialist in audiovisual methods (53 percent); and visiting teacher services (51 percent).

The data, tabulated by size of school system, showed consistently that the larger resource shortages were in the smallest school systems (300-2,999 pupils) and the smaller shortages in the largest systems (25,000 or more pupils). But even in these large school systems there were substantial numbers of supervising principals reporting no specialist available; for example: school physician (51 percent); specialist for exceptional children (41 percent); specialist in guidance (39 percent); visiting teacher service (31 percent); and specialist in reading (27 percent). In other important areas substantial numbers of principals in the largest systems do not have the resource persons they need and, even where this expertness exists, it is often on a part-time basis. This lack of resource personnel means that, if anything is done about many special problems, the principal or a qualified classroom teacher must mus-

ter what skills and procedures they can in the limited time available to them. Unfortunately, fumbling efforts or complete neglect in dealing with many so-called "problem children" in the elementary school often means even greater difficulty with these cases in the high school years.

Status in the school system. Both in 1958 and in 1968 principals were asked a number of questions designed to explore their status as executives, administrators, and supervisors in their school systems. Three general descriptions were offered for respondents to check the one that best characterized the central office's conception of the role of the principal. In 1958, 59 percent of the supervising principals thought that the school system placed them in the "leadership" role (that is, expected them to initiate new ideas and have broad authority in the management of their schools). In 1968, the proportion had dropped to 55 percent choosing the leadership role as the best description of their status. In 1958, 39 percent thought that the central office looked upon them primarily as "supporters" (carrying out policies, but with some freedom of action) and 2 percent thought their expected role was that of a "follower" (one who simply followed the programs, goals, and practices prescribed by the school system). The corresponding percents in 1968 were 41 percent as supporters and 4 percent as followers. The differences between the 1958 and 1968 figures suggest a possible decline in the principal's status. More principals think that the central office now expects them to support or to follow. This change in proportions may represent a sag in the morale of many principals rather than a measure of what the central office really thinks but in either case it suggests a situation which could affect the initiative and enthusiasm of principals.

Both in 1958 and in 1968 principals were asked to indicate what their roles were

with regard to several specific supervisory and administrative functions and activities. The general impression from the replies in 1968 is that principals are increasingly moving into a "shared role," especially with regard to supervision.

For example, relatively more of the supervising principals participating in the 1968 survey, as compared with those who reported in 1958, believe that their general supervisory responsibility is now shared with the school system's resource persons and that they share with school system committees in the selection of instructional materials.

In the area of the curriculum development and in the selection of teachers to be assigned to schools, the respondents in 1968 indicate in larger proportions that they are participating more actively and having more influence than those who responded in 1958.

With regard to the planning of the budget and in developing general school system policies, the replies of principals suggest that between 1958 and 1968 they may have lost ground because today these matters are frequently handled by the central office. The picture is not overwhelming, however, in the direction of central office domination since many principals indicated that they were expected in their school systems to exercise initiative and to suggest new ideas.

Status within the individual school. The concept of sharing responsibility is also indicated with regard to responses related to the principal's supervisory role within the school. For example, in 1968, as compared with 1958, a larger proportion of supervising principals reported an increased role for the faculty as a whole in developing guidelines for pupil placement and an increased sharing with the individual teacher of decisions with regard to the use of specific methods of instruction.

When asked what specific activity they believed was their most effective way to improve instruction, 57.4 percent of the supervising principals in 1968 checked the item: "By helping to create a climate in which teachers, individually or collectively, are encouraged to experiment and to share ideas." This is a broader concept than the one voted most frequently in 1958 (by 48 percent) which was worded as "providing many instructional materials and maintaining high morale." The nearest item to the 1958 statement in 1968 was worded as "discover and use better instructional materials" (reported by 4.8 percent of the supervising principals in 1968).

Supervising principals today, as compared with 1958, appear to have less faith in several specific supervisory procedures: organizing study committees within the faculty (8 percent in 1958; 1.7 percent in 1968); careful study of individual children followed by a report to teachers (1 percent in 1958; 0.3 percent in 1968); keeping abreast of research and interpreting results to staff (6 percent in 1958; 1.8 percent in 1968); and leading faculty meetings or lecturing to staff on methods of teaching (1 percent in 1958; 0 percent in 1968). While the percent differences for some of these items are not statistically significant, the general direction is clear: "Principals today have removed many of the traditional ideas of themselves as all-wise supervisors and are placing more emphasis upon instructional leadership through group planning and group decision involving both classroom teachers and resource personnel."

This group approach is further supported by the 1968 replies to a question on how supervising principals approach the problem of trying out new ideas and innovations. While the subitems of the question were worded somewhat differently, a few comparisons can be made between 1958 and 1968. In 1958 more

than 80 percent of the principals reported that they liked to experiment with new ideas; in 1968 approximately 30 percent reported that "since I like to experiment, I constantly encourage individual teachers to try innovations." In 1958, 13 percent of the supervising principals preferred to have other schools experiment before they tried new ideas; in 1968, close to 65 percent reported that they encouraged their faculties and individual teachers to examine the research on new ideas, present the evidence to the faculty, and then seek for agreement within the faculty on how the new ideas might be carried out. Partly as a test, both questionnaires gave principals an opportunity to say in effect: "Let's concentrate upon the Three R's and not waste time and energy on new ideas." In 1958 and in 1968, only 6 percent checked the item that conveyed this meaning.

Where did new ideas, that led to changes in practice, come from? Both in 1958 and 1968 the substantial proportions of supervising principals checked items denoting "conferences and workshops" (especially local workshops)—checked by 37 percent in 1958 and by 28 percent in 1968. Other principals, teachers, and central office personnel as a source were reported by a smaller proportion of supervising principals in 1968, as compared with 1958 (45 percent in 1958; 31 percent in 1968). Parents and the community as a source of new ideas dropped from 7 percent in 1958 to 1.2 percent of the supervising principals in 1968. College courses as a source of innovations increased in the decade from 3 percent to 6.5 percent. The outstanding change was the increased role of professional reading as a source of new ideas—the percent advanced from 8 percent in 1958 to 20.3 percent in 1968. This change in proportions should give comfort to the authors, editors, and publishers of professional literature.

Lay participation. For several decades professional conferences and literature have stressed the importance of principals taking an active part in community activities. Both in the 1958 survey and the 1968 survey, respondents had an opportunity to indicate whether or not they held office in various types of community organizations; were active members; belonged, but not active; or did not belong.

In general, the percents do not indicate that supervising principals have changed in their leadership and active membership status in churches (the type of participation most frequently reported by all principals); in youth groups (e.g. Scouting); in fraternal groups; in health and social welfare organizations; in veterans and patriotic societies; and in intercultural relations groups. There was a significant decline in leadership and active participation in business organizations and community recreation and cultural groups (e.g. arts). The most dramatic change during the decade, in the percents, indicates increased participation in political party organizations and civil rights groups. While the proportion showing this expanding interest of principals in current and often controversial problems is not large in relation to the total number of respondents, the fact that this area of lay activity has increased (where other types remained relatively static) suggests some increased social responsiveness on the part of today's principal.

Supervising principals reported a median of 3 hours per week in 1968 given to lay organizations. This amount of time suggests a plateau in the trend indicated by earlier studies. For example, in 1928 the median was 2 hours per week; in 1948 it was 3.1 hours; and in 1958, 3.6 hours. In view of current public discussion, not to mention dissension, with regard to many educational problems it is somewhat unexpected to find that supervising princi-

pals, on the average, may be giving less time to participation in the activities of lay groups. The differences in the medians are not significant in the sense that they clearly establish a downward trend or even a plateau, but they do raise questions.

Perhaps the replies of principals as to the "effective ways" to interpret the schools to the public partly explain the decline in the average hours given to the activities of lay groups. In 1968 only 18.5 percent of the supervising principals thought that active participation in lay organizations was a "very effective" school public relations activity. This stands in sharp contrast with several other methods and procedures: 69.8 percent of the supervising principals thought that conferences for the parents in the school were very effective in interpreting education to the public; 52.1 percent similarly rated the school visits of individual parents; and 48.1 percent believed that working closely with parent organizations was also very effective. These percents suggest that supervising principals have a great deal more faith in close school-home relationships than they do in the broader lay organizational activities which usually are remote from the school building. This faith, apparently strongly held, might lead many principals to concentrate on school-home activities in preference to the general activities associated with many lay organizations.

Distribution of work time. One major effort of the DESP surveys in 1928, 1948, 1958, and 1968 has been to obtain a general estimate of the principal's workweek in total hours and an estimate of the use of those hours for the major tasks of the principalship. The average (mean) number of hours spent at the school in connection with regular duties has been increasing slowly, although the differences are not statistically significant. In 1928, supervising principals spent an average of 8.7 hours in their regular work at school; in

1948, an average of 8.7 hours; in 1958, an average of 9.4 hours; and in 1968, an average of 9.2 hours. These daily amounts indicate a total workweek of about 46 hours at school. In addition, in 1968 the typical supervising principal spent 6 hours in other school-related duties thereby bringing the total workweek up to approximately 52 hours. Apparently principals are not working so-called "bankers' hours."

In 1965-66 the NEA Research Division study of a scientific sample of classroom teachers revealed an average of 36 hours per week of required duties and an additional 11 hours per week of noncompensated school activities. The total workweek was 47 hours for the average elementary school classroom teacher. Twenty-three in 100 thought that the conditions under which they were teaching produced little or no strain; 61 in 100 were aware of moderate strain; 16 in 100 felt that they were subjected to considerable strain. These data indicate that the typical classroom teacher in elementary schools, like the principal, puts in a workweek that places a heavy burden on even a vigorous physique.

Questions of how the supervising principal divides his time among his major duties, how he would like to use his time under ideal conditions, and what factors prevent an ideal use of time have also been among the questions asked in the four DESP surveys. On the basis of the averages the principal's profile of his actual time distribution has not undergone much change during the past 40 years:

Supervisory time has ranged from 34 percent to 39 percent in estimates of a typical workweek; the 1968 estimate is 38 percent.

Administrative time estimates have ranged between 29 percent and 30 percent; the 1968 estimate is 30 percent.

Time required by clerical duties has been estimated as ranging between 14 percent and 19 percent; in 1968 the estimate is 14 percent.

Required teaching duties have ranged between 2 and 4 percent; the 1968 estimate is 4 percent.

Miscellaneous duties have been estimated as requiring from 13 percent to 18 percent of the typical workweek; the 1968 estimate is 13 percent.

The most significant difference has been the decline in the proportion of time given to clerical tasks between 1928 and 1968. Apparently the increase in clerical help in elementary schools during the past two decades has made a difference—a drop of 5 percent, on the average, in the percent of time given by supervising principals to clerical work. Other estimates of time given to major tasks remained relatively unchanged during the past 40 years.

When asked to estimate the *ideal* distribution of their time supervising principals have shown strong attachment to approximately 50 percent as the desirable proportion they should give to supervision (over the decades the estimates have ranged from 49 percent to 55 percent; the ideal estimate for 1968 is 53 percent). The ideal proportion of time for administration has ranged in the four surveys between 24 percent and 25 percent (the 1968 estimate is 24 percent). The time that might be allotted to clerical tasks has ranged between 4 percent and 6 percent (the 1968 estimate is 4 percent). A regular teaching assignment has continued to appeal to supervising principals since the recommended ideal time for teaching has ranged between 2 percent and 6 percent (the 1968 estimate is 4 percent). The ideal allotment to miscellaneous duties has, of course, ranged up and down in relation to the ideal time allotted to the major tasks.

The outstanding fact in these ideal allotments is the persistent pursuit of the Holy

Grail of Supervision. Although their estimates of actual time allotments have changed relatively slowly during the past four decades principals continue to look toward supervision as the function that should have approximately half of the workweek. Meanwhile, the term supervision has changed from meaning activities characterized by an "inspectorial" relationship toward teachers and instruction to denoting a broader skill of coordinating various resources and facilitating teacher participation in decision-making so as to improve the instruction. This latter type of leadership will require more of the principal's time as well as greater freedom from routine, clerical work.

If principals really want to devote more time to supervision, why are they unable to do so? The primary block to supervising principals is lack of administrative help (reported by 13 percent in 1958 and by 26 percent in 1968). Lack of clerical help as a block declined in principals' reports from 29 percent in 1958 to 25 percent in 1968. The proportion reporting the load of central office demands as adversely affecting their use of time almost doubled in the past decade (from 12 percent in 1958 to 20 percent in 1968). The proportions reporting adverse effects of overcrowded buildings, special drives and campaigns, demands of parents, and lack of office facilities have apparently declined about half among supervising principals between 1958 and 1968. Regular teaching demands were reported by 4 percent of the principals in 1958 and again in 1968. The demands of new welfare programs—not listed in 1958—was reported by 3 percent of the principals in 1968 as impairing their efforts to attain an ideal distribution of the typical workweek.

One gains the impression from the four surveys, made over the past 40 years, that the central offices of many school systems are still not fully aware of the burden ele-

mentary school principals bear in managing modern schools. The brightest spot in the situation has been the gain in the amount of clerical help made available in recent years. Yet, even in 1968, close to 9 percent of the supervising principals report no secretarial help and an additional 12 percent report that they have only the equivalent of half a clerk. About 15 percent of these office employees have little or no secretarial training. Ninety percent of the supervising principals do not have full-time assistant principals. As long as these conditions continue the typical elementary school principal will be able only to edge along toward a better distribution of his workweek and to move but slowly toward the types of professional services increasingly needed today.

And change will continue to take place

The majority of the earlier chapters and the first section of this final chapter have been based largely on the responses of 2,318 principals who completed 72 questions in an 8-page questionnaire. This was a scientific sample representative of the elementary school principals in public school systems enrolling 300 or more pupils. Approximately 300 pages of tabular material have been summarized in these preceding chapters.

The primary purpose of the questionnaire was to obtain up-to-date information along the general lines established by the surveys in 1928, 1948, and 1958. Most of the questions had to do with the personal characteristics of principals, their preparation and experience, their major functions and duties, their professional relationships with other staff members and the public, and their opinions with regard to certain current school procedures. The presentation has been, in general, matter-of-fact with regard to percents, medians, means, and ranges and other characteristics of the data. When comparisons with

earlier surveys revealed substantial differences and trends, a few speculative statements have been made as to the reasons behind the changes and the possibility that an apparent trend might continue.

During the period of drafting the questionnaire the Department's staff and members of the NEA Research Division staff discussed at some length the possibility of asking principals to evaluate and to predict with regard to major controversies, recent changes in school systems, new developments enlarging the public's role in educational policy making, curriculum trends, and a number of other questions. The decision, not to try exploring these complex areas, was made primarily for two reasons: (1) adequate coverage of these emerging conditions would have made the questionnaire unwieldy and would have reduced the coverage of areas previously surveyed in the preceding DESP studies, and (2) since many of the emerging conditions are developing at a rapid pace they could be handled more effectively in current issues of *The National Elementary Principal*.

The following section is indicative, but not all-inclusive, of the questions considered by the staff. Most of the items are here presented partly in question form because even tentative answers are still to be found. One of the difficulties, even in suggesting possible directions, is that the United States is a very large country with many regional, state, and local differences. Often the socio-educational problems, described as acute in current professional literature, have not yet been clearly identified as matters of concern in small or even middle-size school systems. Intense controversy revolves around some questions in certain geographic sections while in other sections, these same questions are relatively unimportant as compared with other acute problems of local or state concern. What may appear to be "a good solu-

tion" to a question facing the metropolis may not be applicable in an affluent suburban community although the underlying principles of the solution may be both useful and essential in both types of school systems. The hope—and hope has been one of the fundamental characteristics of American life—is that elementary school principals throughout the country will become increasingly concerned about the so-called "current issues" and will increase their efforts to acquire the resources to meet these problems—if and when—these difficulties approach their communities.

Among the questions and problems that need attention are the following:

How well prepared is the individual principal to meet the demands that will fall upon the principalship during the next decade?

Will the typical master's degree be adequate preparation for dealing effectively with the emerging socio-economic and human relations problems of most communities, not to mention the more complex situation in the metropolis? How does one learn to understand and to utilize the new theories and the intricate hardware of a constantly growing field of audiovisual education? These are merely examples where in-service education must fill gaps in pre-service education and explore questions in greater depth than in the past.

Perhaps, for most principals now in service, the primary need is for "a pause in the day's occupations" so that they can appraise the extent, depth, and probable permanence of many of the changes in American life and in education. With a new grip on the facts and on their attitudes they may be better prepared for the seminars, workshops, and professional publications that will both accelerate and facilitate their progress toward new understandings and insights.

But the principal, during the next decade, cannot possibly become expert in the

many fields with which he has contacts nor, even with considerable new wisdom, can he become the master of all he surveys. Actually—as a number of principals indicated in this survey—they are becoming increasingly the nuclei of corps of experts who group and regroup as necessary to meet the challenges and problems as they arise. Versatility and inventiveness in group situations may become more important qualities of the principal than an unflinching presence in his office.

How can the principal help the members of the faculty to redirect their attitudes, planning, and procedures so as to provide better educational opportunities for all children?

How does a faculty learn to pool its questions and resources so as to identify and act upon those problems of most immediate concern? How does a staff find freedom from the persistent daily demands so that its members can really listen to those who have thought ahead on many current issues? How can a staff adapt new educational ideals and programs to the needs of an individual school and of a community so as to produce improvement, not merely change for change's sake?

A few will say that these gains can be brought about by an in-service study program. But, in the past, many in-service programs have been too general and too academic. If a program today is to enlist the interest of a staff, it must be focused on the real problems of the classroom teacher and it must be a plan which the teachers, because they shared in its development, are willing to carry out. Many principals, as indicated from their replies to questions on supervision, have already set their feet on the path of shared relationships with the teachers of their schools and with the resource personnel of the school system. For many principals the future invites, even requires, them to discover and gladly participate in many types

of cooperative activities including those dealing with the organization and operation of tomorrow's schools.

Classroom teachers and principals are becoming increasingly concerned about the army of auxiliary personnel (usually called teacher aides). Perhaps 30,000 to 35,000 are now employed in local school systems. How can classroom teachers learn to supervise and to make effective use of these adults? How can the school system provide the in-service education that this new auxiliary staff needs for service in schools? How can the principal help these new types of employees to reinforce the classroom teacher's skills and to avoid trying to perform strictly technical, educational functions? How do these aides affect the school's public relations image?

Where will schools find the types of new teachers that the next decade will require?

There is a strong possibility that the elementary school faculty of the next decade will assume a larger share in teacher education. Teacher education programs will draw more heavily upon the actualities of elementary education by reflecting the experience, experimentation, and creative successes of classroom teachers and elementary school principals.

Far more than in the past, the organized profession will encourage the most competent young people to consider the challenges and opportunities of a career in teaching. Many youth are not aware that through education they can make substantial contributions to the better America which is the subject of so much talk today. Student teachers will be given earlier and far more meaningful experiences in dealing with children under classroom conditions and in community situations. Their subsequent professional preparation will utilize these early, firsthand experiences in making more meaningful the research and scholarship in many fields.

Clearly these improvements in teacher education must also benefit from the unique experiences of the school principal. His position in the midst of many social, governmental, and economic movements and pressures often reveals insights into human needs not readily available, even to the classroom teacher. How can the institutions of teacher education profit from the skills and the insights of principals without imposing undue burdens upon the institutions and upon those who serve in the principalship? How can professional education programs develop a new supply of classroom teachers and principals sensitive to today's human needs and dedicated to the improvement of American life, unless during their student days they are exposed to the problems and realities of everyday social processes? After a few years in teaching most classroom teachers and principals have learned that "life is real and life is earnest," but can more of this learning be anticipated during the first years of teacher education?

How can the profession meet the problems caused by advancing knowledge and pressure toward an expanding curriculum?

Perhaps we can expect future programs of teacher education to help both classroom teachers and principals to be better judges of the knowledge that is of most worth. Is it possible also that the improvement and expansion of audiovisual education will help in content selection and accelerate the learning process? Will the new hardware and methods increase the pupil's responsibility for his own learning and expand the teacher's role as guide of individual pupil development? Is it possible that a formula will be found—which seems to continue to be elusive—to utilize the knowledge of scholars in connection with planning school curriculums? To what extent will it be necessary to extend the school day and the school year?

The foregoing questions, most of which are not new, will require the addition of many technically skilled persons, will increase the need for communication among the professional staff of school systems, will require a great deal of in-service education for classroom teachers and principals, and will call for extensive coordination efforts on the part of school administrators. The outlook for the principal is one of increased responsibility in making new resources operate as truly effective factors in the instructional process. He may be less of an administrator in the old sense of commanding officer and more of a group leader who necessarily must share both with teachers and resource personnel goal-determination, policy-making, and the shaping of the curriculum. Without the principal in this group leadership role the outlook for the future presents a threat of inarticulations and waste motions within the professional staff—no matter how high-minded and socially advanced their intentions and their visions may be. Coordination does not mean domination—it does mean order and system whereby good ideas will have a chance.

What does the future hold with regard to the role of parents in the education of their children?

The idea of parents participating in the education of their children has existed from the earliest times. In colonial days and during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries parents often taught their children many of the basic skills and knowledges. In urban communities parents and other laymen made decisions about education in town meetings and other local governmental agencies. In time their representatives in state and local bodies enacted the laws that were to initiate and govern educational systems.

Far-reaching changes took place during the twentieth century because of the in-

creased availability of public schools, the improved preparation and competency of teachers, the influence of scientific developments (e.g. in health and psychology), and the increased efficiency of school buildings and management—to mention only a few of the major trends. Under the influence of these developments the role of parents in education changed, but it did not become less important.

Schools continued to expect parents to send their children to school with healthy minds in healthy bodies. Parents were expected to show at home (such as time and space for study) that they valued educational opportunities. As responsible citizens they were expected to stand for constructive community conditions and to support the development of schools, libraries, and other educational agencies. These and many other factors, scarcely recognized prior to 1900, became important in the total educational opportunity of children. Although teachers and school administrators encouraged these supplementary developments, the responsibility for general educational policies and financial support continued to be a primary obligation of parents and other members of the general public.

Within the past two or three decades several socio-economic developments have become so strong that they now threaten the constructive trends previously outlined. Increasing mobility of families has reduced the school's opportunity to exert prolonged and systematic influences upon many children. New economic affluence has led many families to spend increasing sums upon home-related activities which, to say the least, do not support the goals of education. Declining economic opportunities, poor housing, and persistent disease—especially in the slum areas of large cities—have nourished attitudes of rebellion against necessarily orderly methods of school management and instruction.

Various remedies have been proposed. Abolish the neighborhood school say some—and in the process abolish the educational advantages of close home-school relations built up in past years? Give the educational direction to the parents of each neighborhood—even though this is contrary to the experience of school administration during the past 100 years, even though it would impede the transfer of children among schools, even though it would result in increased dissension within many neighborhoods, even though it would deprive the disadvantaged areas of the interest and help of more affluent neighborhoods, and even though it would result in wasteful operations now handled with reasonable efficiency for the total school district under the local board of education? The end of “easy remedies” is not in sight—but the obligation of classroom teachers and principals to remind the public of practical school experience and of common sense remains as a civic duty. The educational opportunities of many children will continue to improve if substantial numbers of parents return to their basic, supporting roles in the educational process. Some of the more vocal ones could find an outlet for their proposals through parent-teacher associations where, hopefully, they might pay attention to the voice of experience. There also they might turn energy, now spent on disadvantages and grievances, toward cooperative activities and the practice of good will as many Americans learned to do in past decades.

How can the teaching profession reconcile its internal differences and continue to advance in a united way to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and promote the cause of education?

Most classroom teachers and principals in today's elementary school as a result of professional preparation programs, professional reading, and the everyday experi-

ences of school operation, have obtained an appreciation of the principles of professional ethics. In recent years these principles have been set forth in codes of ethics adopted officially by local, state, and national associations. Increasingly through the years these basic statements of standards have become guidelines for conduct within the school and in relationships with the board of education and the general public.

Certain aspects of the current situation in education, especially in local school systems, have raised questions as to the status of professional codes of ethics. Are they no longer applicable to relationships between the professional staff and boards of education? Are they no longer recognized in the decision-making process within professional organizations? Is the voice of the experienced, professional teacher, when raised in defense of ethical principles, to be given a fair hearing because of his right to speak freely in democratic groups?

Those familiar with public education know that the development of fair, constructive personnel policies has been a long, uphill effort. Persistent effort by state professional education associations and by the National Education Association brought about most of the necessary laws. Between the 1920's and the 1950's ever-increasing numbers of boards of education were persuaded of the importance of protective laws with regard to retirement systems, tenure policies, acceptable salary levels, and many other personnel matters. At the local level, the professional staff, the central administration, and the board of education often reached agreements which went beyond the minimum requirements of state law. Local and state professional associations were especially effective in bringing about recognition of the need for fair play in relationships between the professional staff and the central school administration.

A hundred years ago classroom teach-

ers, principals, superintendents, and college staffs agreed that they could work together in all-inclusive professional associations. The progress in instruction, as well as in personnel management matters, is largely a result of that internal professional cooperation. Recently, a few members of the profession, borrowing from the theories and policies of labor unions, have actively advanced the idea that classroom teachers are "workers" and any type of school administrator is automatically a part of "management." They have insisted that nothing can be obtained from "management" except by intensive bargaining under rules and procedures set forth in agreements or contracts. As this point of view has become dominant in the largest school systems, and to some extent in smaller school systems, the role of the principal has become increasingly ambiguous.

The operation of the modern, complex school requires a great deal of good will and cooperation within the school faculty and with many resource persons who possess special expertise. Under these favorable conditions the duties of the classroom teacher, the principal, and the resource persons are coordinated. Each type of expertness reinforces the other. The best use of resources develops by mutual agreement and the responsibilities of each often change from day to day. In the process, inflexible rules are relatively few and even these are readily changed as instructional circumstances require. This creative process within the individual school cannot be dictated by detailed rules prescribed by an outside group whether that controlling body is the board of education or a committee of the local teachers association.

Increasingly, in school systems that have adopted professional negotiation or collective bargaining agreements, there has been a marked tendency to urge that every question or problem is subject to negotia-

tion. This usually means that negotiation takes place only between a classroom teacher committee and a team representing the central administration (or board of education). Other professional staff members, regardless of their interest in, responsibility for, or expertness in handling the particular question at issue, are completely excluded from the decision-making process. As the negotiated decisions filter down to the individual school they may be in the form of inflexible rules which block efficient classroom and school management. The traditional leadership functions of the principal, even those prescribed by state law, may be circumscribed and impaired by fiat issued by negotiation teams whose members are completely unfamiliar with the operation of an elementary school.

Several roads are available to local associations of elementary school principals. In many communities, where the all-inclusive association continues to be effective, principals as members of these groups can insist on arrangements whereby their views are reasonably and fairly represented in any negotiated situation. Where the all-inclusive professional association breaks down, principals can open direct discussions both with the local classroom teacher organization and with the central administration for the purpose of inventing machinery which will permit the views of principals to be part of the negotiation process before any final decision is made. This machinery might be a reviewing committee of principals to examine all proposals and to submit its views both to the classroom teacher team and to the administration's team. The possibility of various types of channels has not been extensively explored and it should be before principals' organizations take extremely defensive positions. At the moment there is no magical answer, but classroom teachers and elementary school principals have for many years been able to reach fair and

sensible decisions on many aspects of instruction and school administration. They should be able to continue past successes despite the ambiguous status of principals which professional negotiation agreements have created in some communities.

What adjustments must be made to the innovations and projects in various phases of elementary education which have recently emerged as a result of increasing amounts of federal aid?

An opinion poll of a representative sample of DESP members (reported in the January 1967 issue of *The National Elementary Principal*) revealed that 59 percent had federally-supported projects and programs operating in their schools. In 30 percent of these situations the principals serve only in an advisory capacity; in 29 percent the principal was the supervisor of the project in his school. These replies raise many questions on how such projects can operate smoothly and effectively within a larger school situation without the principal's involvement.

Half of the principals reporting in the opinion poll said that they had a part in planning the projects. In the present 1968 survey 56.2 percent of the total sample reported that they had participated recently in developing proposals for the use of federal funds in their school systems. Both studies indicate that substantial numbers of principals are not being asked to help in planning the federally-supported projects. Does this mean that the determination of educational needs is exclusively a function of the local central administration, the state department of education, or even a federal agency? If so, just how are the decision-makers ascertaining the most pressing needs of the front line—namely, the classrooms of individual schools? Are the federally-supported programs constructively reinforcing the present programs of schools?

In the long view the chances are that the federal contribution to education will gradually increase. If this aid is in the form of general grants to help the states and localities improve the quality of all education and more adequately exert a positive influence upon the often neglected educational problems, then state and local principals organizations should be able to contribute wisely and constructively to the development of new and reinforced programs. If the federal aid is given to states and communities on a categorical basis, then it may be more difficult for principals' groups to make their views known at the policy-making and decision-making levels. In regard to both types of federal aid, principals groups—especially at the local and state levels—should confer and agree upon such matters as the imperative needs

of elementary education; the materials, personnel, and services that would operate most effectively in relation to existing school programs; ways to insure lines of communication with classroom teachers and the public as to the shortages in school programs and the effectiveness of federally-supported and state-initiated plans; what needs to be done to inform the voters of the community on school needs that are not and cannot be met by federally-supported projects; and procedures for appraising the effectiveness of innovations upon the educational development of children. The voice of the individual principal may not be heard on such problems, but the considered decisions and actions of groups of principals may well exert a common-sense effect upon many current trends and events.

“Whereof what’s past is prologue;

What to come, in yours and my discharge.”

—William Shakespeare, *The Tempest*, Act II, Scene 1

FOOTNOTES

Chapter I

* National Education Association, Research Division. *The American Public School Teacher*, 1965-66. Research Report 1967-R4. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1967. Table 46, p. 51.

Chapter II

* National Association of Secondary School Principals, NEA. *The Senior High School Principalship*. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1965, p. 28 and *The Junior High School Principalship*, 1966. p. 23.

Chapter V

* Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA. *The National Elementary Principal*, November 1967, pages 2-46, and January 1968, pages 2-45, present comprehensive treatment of The Nongraded School. Reprints are available from the Department, 94 p., \$2.

† National Education Association, Research Division. *Class Size in Kindergartens and Elementary Schools*, March 1965. Research Report 1965-R11. Washington, D.C.: the Association, July 1967. p. 12.

‡ National Education Association, Research Division. *The American Public-School Teacher*, 1965-66. Research Report 1967-R4. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1967. p. 21.

Chapter VIII

* National Education Association, Research Division. Research Report 1967-R4. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1967. p. 44.

Chapter XI

* From the October 1959 issue of *The National Elementary Principal*. In slightly revised form these recommendations were reaffirmed at the 1968 Annual Meeting of the Department. See September 1968 issue, *The National Elementary Principal*.

† NEA, Research Division. *Salary Schedules for Administrative Personnel*, 1966-67. Research Report 1967-R3. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1967. Table 13, p. 30.

‡ Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA. *The National Elementary Principal*, "Opinion Poll," April 1968.

APPENDIX

SAMPLE SELECTION AND RESPONSE

The questionnaire used in this survey was mailed in February 1967 to 2,551 elementary school principals in systems having an enrollment of 300 or more pupils. The mailing list was obtained by two-stage random sample design.

The first-stage sample consisted of a group of school systems. The approximately 11,500 school systems having elementary grades and at least 300 pupils were grouped by enrollment into 8 strata and 690 systems were randomly selected from the stratified list. The second-stage sample, the mailing list, was obtained by selecting a sample of elementary principals from each of the 690 selected systems. The sampling fractions used for selecting the principals yielded a self-weighting sample and the over-all sampling fraction was 1 in 21.

Five follow-ups were mailed, over a period of 12 weeks, which resulted in a 91.7 percent response rate as follows:

Sample size—number of questionnaires mailed	2,551
Number returned and identified	2,339
Number of replies from persons selected in the sample who were no longer elementary principals	21
Adjusted sample size, omitting the estimated total number who were no longer elementary principals	2,528
Number of usable replies from elementary principals	2,318
Percent response, based on adjusted sample size	91.7%

ESTIMATES OF SAMPLING VARIATION

The percentages and means contained in this report are statistics obtained from a stratified two-stage sample of elementary school principals in systems with at least 300 pupils in the United States. Like all sample data, these statistics are subject to sampling variation. It is important that this variation be considered whenever inferences about the population are based upon: (a) a single statistic and (b) the difference between two statistics, i.e. two means or two percentages.

This technical note presents tables designed to assist the reader in estimating the amount of sampling variation associated with population inferences made from the sample percentages contained in this report and describes procedures for using the tables in establishing confidence intervals for population percentages.

Confidence Intervals for Percentages

In sample surveys it is impossible to determine exactly how much a sample percentage differs from the corresponding population percentage. But by using the sample data to estimate the expected amount of variation associated with the sample percentage, it is possible to determine a range of values with a specific likelihood that the range or interval will include the population percentage. Such a range of values is termed the *confidence interval* and the upper and lower values of this interval are termed the *confidence limits*. The probability that the confidence interval includes the population percentage is called the *degree of confidence* and is usually expressed as a percent.

Table A is designed to assist the reader in making population inferences based upon single sample percentages. The table contains the approximate number of percentage points that should be subtracted from and added to an observed sample percentage in order to obtain the approximate 90 percent confidence limits for the corresponding percentage in the population. Such limits determine an interval which will include the population percentage about 90 times in 100. Although in most cases the limits will be conservative, that is, the degree of confidence will be greater than 90 percent, in some instances the level of confidence will be less than 90 percent. For a discussion of why this is true see the section of this technical note titled "Method Used in Computing Tabled Values."

To illustrate the use of Table A, suppose we have an observed sample percentage of 22.3 percent which is based upon a subgroup of 733 respondents and we wish to make an inference about the corresponding population percentage. Since 22.3 is nearer to 20 percent than to any other percentage shown in the columnar headings of the table, we select the column headed "Observed percentage near 20 or 80." The observed percentage is based upon a sample of 733; therefore, we choose the row labeled 700-999. At the intersection of the selected column and row, we find a value of 3.9 percentage points. We subtract this value from and add it to the observed value of 22.3 to obtain the approximate .90 confidence limits, which are 18.4 percent and 26.2 percent. Thus we can state with approximately 90 percent confidence that the range of values from 18.4 percent to 26.2 percent includes the population percentage. In other words, the probability that the interval will contain the population percentage is approximately .90.

Comparing Two Percentages

Sampling variation must also be taken into account when comparing any two percentages reported in this study. That is, if an observed percentage is larger than another, it does not necessarily mean that the corresponding population percentages differ by a like amount. In fact, the population percentages may be equal and difference between the sample percentages may be due only to chance in the selection of this particular sample.

Table B is designed to give the reader some idea of how much difference can be expected between two sample percentages as a result of sampling variation for various sample or subgroup sizes. The values shown are the approximate minimum number of percentage points by which two observed percentages must differ in order for the reader to infer that the corresponding population percentages are different with a confidence of approximately .90. In other words, if the observed difference exceeds the value given at the intersection of the appropriate row and column in the proper section of the table, it may be stated with approximately 90 percent confidence that the population percentages are different. In most cases the degree of confidence will be greater than 90 percent, but in some cases the level of confidence will be less than 90 percent.

Table B may also be used to obtain the approximate 90 percent confidence interval for the difference between two population percentages. The value obtained from the table may be subtracted from and added to the observed difference to obtain the approximate confidence limits and the probability that the interval between the limits contains the difference between the population percentages is .90. It should be noted that if the interval includes zero, it should *not* be inferred that the population percentages are different and also that in some instances the degree of confidence will actually be less than 90 percent.

To illustrate the use of Table B, suppose we have two observed sample percentages of 26.5 percent and 32.3 percent which are based upon subgroup sizes of 537 and 765. Is this sample difference of 5.8 percentage points large enough for us to be able to infer with approximately 90 percent confidence that the population percentages are different? Since both percentages are near 30 percent, we enter the section of the table headed "For percentages around 30 or 70." Each section of the table is symmetrical so we may use either subgroup size to determine the proper column and then use the other to determine the proper row. One subgroup size is 537 so we select the column headed 500-699 and the other subgroup size is 765 so we select the row labeled 700-999. At the intersection of the selected row and column we find the value 5.2 percentage points. Since the observed difference of 5.8 percentage points exceeds the value obtained from the table, we may state with approximately 90 percent confidence that the corresponding population percentages are different.

The value obtained from the table may be subtracted from and added to the observed difference to obtain the approximate 90 percent confidence limits for the population difference which are 0.6 percent and 11.0 percent. We can then state with approximately 90 percent confidence that the interval from 0.6 percent to 11.0 percent includes the difference between the population percentages.

Method Used in Computing Tabled Values

It is difficult to supply the user of statistics obtained from two-stage samples with a precise estimate of the amount of sampling variation associated with a particular percentage because even though two or more

observed percentages obtained from samples or subgroups of the same size are equal, in almost all cases their variances will not be equal. The generalized and approximate values presented in Tables A and B are the results of many computations. They are based on computations of the design effect which is the ratio of the standard error of a percentage reported in the study to the standard error of a percentage of equal magnitude obtained from a simple random sample of the same number of elements.

The design effects were calculated for many percentages in the various subgroups of the sample and then grouped in the cells shown in the tables and averaged. The design effects for Table B were calculated under the assumption that the two percentages were from independent subgroups. The average used to compute the generalized value for a particular cell in one of the tables was not a true average but a "safe" or "conservative average" which exceeded most of the values calculated for the cell.

Table A—Approximate Number of Percentage Points to be Added to and Subtracted from an Observed Sample Percentage to Obtain the 90 Percent Confidence Limits for the Corresponding Population Percentage

Subgroup Size	OBSERVED PERCENTAGE NEAR				
	10% or 90%	20% or 80%	30% or 70%	40% or 60%	50%
100- 299	4.0	5.4	6.2	6.5	6.9
300- 499	3.8	5.5	5.9	6.6	6.8
500- 699	2.9	4.4	4.7	5.1	5.1
700- 999	2.9	3.9	4.7	4.8	5.0
1000-1499	2.1	2.9	3.6	3.5	3.7
1500-1999	2.0	2.6	3.3	3.3	3.4
2000-2318	1.8	2.6	3.1	3.3	3.2

Table B—Approximate Difference Required for Significance at .90 Level of Confidence for Selected Subgroup Sizes

Subgroup Size	Subgroup Size						
	100-299	300-499	500-699	700-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000-2318
For Percentages from 35 to 65							
100- 299	8.8	8.2	7.5	7.3	6.9	6.8	6.7
300- 499	8.2	7.4	6.7	6.5	6.0	5.9	5.8
500- 699	7.5	6.7	5.9	5.6	5.1	4.9	4.8
700- 999	7.3	6.5	5.6	5.3	4.7	4.5	4.4
1000-1499	6.9	6.0	5.1	4.7	4.1	3.9	3.8
1500-1999	6.8	5.9	4.9	4.5	3.9	3.6	3.5
2000-2318	6.7	5.8	4.8	4.4	3.8	3.5	3.4
For Percentages around 30 or 70							
100- 299	8.2	7.5	6.9	6.7	6.4	6.3	6.2
300- 499	7.5	6.8	6.1	5.9	5.5	5.4	5.3
500- 699	6.9	6.1	5.4	5.2	4.7	4.5	4.4
700- 999	6.7	5.9	5.2	4.9	4.4	4.3	4.1
1000-1499	6.4	5.5	4.7	4.4	3.9	3.7	3.5
1500-1999	6.3	5.4	4.5	4.3	3.7	3.4	3.3
2000-2318	6.2	5.3	4.4	4.1	3.5	3.3	3.1
For Percentages around 20 or 80							
100- 299	7.0	6.5	6.0	5.8	5.5	5.4	5.3
300- 499	6.5	6.0	5.5	5.2	4.8	4.7	4.6
500- 699	6.0	5.5	4.8	4.5	4.1	4.0	3.9
700- 999	5.8	5.2	4.5	4.2	3.8	3.6	3.5
1000-1499	5.5	4.8	4.1	3.8	3.3	3.1	3.0
1500-1999	5.4	4.7	4.0	3.6	3.1	2.9	2.8
2000-2318	5.3	4.6	3.9	3.5	3.0	2.8	2.7
For Percentages around 10 or 90							
100- 299	5.3	4.9	4.5	4.4	4.1	4.1	4.0
300- 499	4.9	4.3	3.9	3.8	3.5	3.4	3.4
500- 699	4.5	3.9	3.4	3.3	3.0	2.9	2.8
700- 999	4.4	3.8	3.3	3.1	2.8	2.7	2.6
1000-1499	4.1	3.5	3.0	2.8	2.4	2.3	2.2
1500-1999	4.1	3.4	2.9	2.7	2.3	2.2	2.1
2000-2318	4.0	3.4	2.8	2.6	2.2	2.1	2.0

THIS REPORT was produced by the joint efforts
of the following graphic arts firms . . .

► DESIGN and ARTWORK:

WILLIAM J. KIRCHER & ASSOCIATES
Washington, D. C.

► TYPOGRAPHY:

HENDRICKS-MILLER TYPOGRAPHIC CO.
Washington, D. C.

► PRINTING:

MOORE & MOORE LITHOGRAPHERS
Joseph C. Bishop, Account Executive
Washington, D. C.

INDEX

- Academic degrees: reported by supervising principals, 23-25; reported by teaching principals, 24; trend shown in DESP surveys, 24.
- Academically talented: evaluation of programs for, 118; extent of use, 118-119; federal support of, 118.
- Administration: actual time given to, 46-47; budget preparation, 60-61; graduate college courses in, 26-27; ideal time allotment to, 51; number of schools under principals, 62-63; participation in policy-making, 55-56; personnel resources, 70-77; principal's status in school system, 53-55, 143; selection of instructional staff, 56-57; teacher rating, 57-60. See Budget making; Faculty; Grade organization; and Interpretation of schools.
- Age: at time of first appointment as principal, 13-14; men supervising principals, 10-11; teaching principals, 10; turnover in principalship, 139-140; women supervising principals, 10-11.
- Appendix: chapter footnotes, 156; estimates of sample variation, 157-161; sample selection and response, 157.
- Appraisal: of college instructional methods, 27-28; of courses for beginning principals, 36-37; of instructional procedures, 101-115; of most effective public relations procedures, 97-100; of new demands and developments, 116-127.
- Assistant principals: availability of full-time, 72-73; lack of, a block to best use of principal's time, 51-52; major functions of, 73-74.
- Associations, General: importance of the all-inclusive association, 151-153; principals' membership in, 35-37.
- Associations, Principals': percent belonging to DESP, 34; percent belonging to local groups, 34; percent belonging to state groups, 34; value of professional associations as in-service preparation, 30-32.
- Bachelor's degrees. See Academic degrees.
- Board of education: professional negotiation problems, 151-153; proposals for participation by parents, 150-151.
- Budget: principal's role in making, 60-61.
- Certification of principals: percent with administrative type, 33; percent with principal's type, 33-34; percent with teaching type only, 33.
- Classroom teaching: actual time given to, by supervising principals, 44-45; actual time given to, by teaching principals, 44-45; contribution to success as a principal, 28-29.
- Clerical duties: actual time given to, 45-46; ideal time allotment to, 51; impediment to best use of time, 51-52, 146-147.
- Clerks: apparent increase in, over recent decade, 72; lack of, as impediment to best use of principal's time, 52; number of full-time assigned to schools, 71; preparation of, for secretarial duties, 72.
- College degrees. See Academic degrees.
- College preparation: amount of, among principals, 23-24; as possible in-service preparation, 30-32; college methods evaluated, 27-28; contribution to success as principal, 28-29; types recommended for beginning principals, 36-37.
- Community: characteristics of school, 90-91; extent of principals' participation in lay groups, 92-96; time given to groups in, 96-97; value of various public relations procedures, 97-100.
- Curriculum: decisions of principal in relation to instruction, 79-83; percent of time given to, development, 48-49; principal's role in developing the, 79-80; use and evaluation of certain special types of programs, 116-127; use and evaluation of various organizational and instructional procedures, 101-115.
- Department of Elementary School Principals: in-service value of national meetings, 30-32; percent of principals belonging to, 34-36; sponsorship of national surveys, 4.
- Departmentalization: evaluation of, 103; extent of use by principals, 103-105; grade levels where used, 103-105.
- Disadvantaged, Preschool programs for: evaluation by principals, 117; extent of use, 116-117; federal support of, 117.

Doctor's degrees. See Academic degrees.

Duties, Major. See Administration; Clerical; Community; Miscellaneous; Principals, Supervising; Principals, Teaching; Supervision; Teaching, Regular.

Economic status: additional earnings of principals, 130-133; basis of salary schedules, 135-137; regular salaries in 1966-67, 128-130; salary trends as compared with classroom teachers, 134-137.

Education in the future, 139-154.

Educational Associations. See Associations, General and Associations, Principals'.

Elementary school principal. See Assistant principals; Principals, Supervising; and Principals, Teaching.

Enrichment programs: after-school type, 122-123; summer type, 123-124; federal support of, 122-123.

Enrollment: as a basis for salary schedules, 135-137; trends in, 66; under supervising principals; 66-67; under teaching principals, 67.

Evaluation. See Appraisal.

Evening classes, Adult: evaluation of, 125; extent of use, 125; federal support of, 125.

Experience: as a factor in success as principal, 28-29; of supervising principals, 19-23; of teaching principals, 19-23; prior to appointment as principal, 20-21.

Faculty: cooperation in curriculum development, 79-80; determining specific teaching methods, 82-83; principal's role in selecting, 56-57; rating of, 57-60; role in pupil placement, 83-84; sharing in selection of instructional materials and methods, 80-82; size of, 67-68.

Financial status. See Economic status.

Foreign language: evaluation of, 110-112; extent of use by principals, 110; grades where used, 111.

Future of principalship: bold thinking, 147-154; challenges of the next few years, 148-154; cooperation with classroom teachers in schools, 149-150, 151-153; in relation to professional negotiation, 151-153; participation in all-inclusive professional associations, 35-37, 151-153.

General supervisor: as final goal, 17-18.

Geographic regions: used in tabulations, 7.

Grade organization: cooperation in pupil placement, 83-84; horizontal organization types used, 65-66; scope of typical schools, 64-66; vertical types used, 64-65.

Graded plan: extent of single grade, 65; multi-graded, 65.

Guidance, Specialized personnel: evaluation of, 114-115; extent of use by principals, 114.

Home-school relationships: conferences for parents at school, 99; principal's working with organizations for parents, 97-100; problem of parent participation in school policy-making and management, 150-151; value of messages sent with report cards, 98; value of parents' visits to school, 98-99; value of school newspaper sent to homes, 98-100.

Horizontal organization: types of plans used, 65-66.

Innovations: how tried out, 88-89; source of new ideas, 86-88.

In-service education: activities of principals in, 29-32; actual time given to, 32-33, 50; contribution of, to success as principal, 28-29; experiences in, considered most valuable, 30-32; ideal time allotment to, 51; possibility of released time for, 29-30. See Associations, General and Department of Elementary School Principals.

Internship: as source of new supply of principals, 12-13; as college method of preparation, 27-29.

Interpretation of schools: most effective ways in interpreting schools to public, 97-100; principals' participation in lay organizations, 92-96; proportion of time given to community contacts, 96-97.

Kindergartens: as part of school organization, 64.

Laymen: community relationships of principals, 49, 92-96; effective ways to interpret schools to, 97-100; 145; organizations joined by principals, 92-96; time allotted to organizations of, 96-97, 145. See Community and Interpretation of schools.

Legal status of principals: administrative status in school system, 53-61; possible adverse effect of professional negotiation contracts, 138, 151-153; role as supervisor, 78-89. See Administration and Supervision.

Marital status: of supervising principals, 12; of teaching principals, 12.

Master's degrees. See Academic degrees.

Memberships. See Associations, General; Associations, Principals'; and Laymen.

Men as principals: age of supervising principals, 10; age of teaching principals, 10; proportion of, 11, 140. See Academic degrees; Administration; and Supervision.

Mentally handicapped, Programs for: evaluation of, by principals, 119; extent of use, 119-120; federal support of, 119.

Miscellaneous duties: actual time allotted to, 45-46, 50; ideal time allotment to, 51; need for administrative assistants, 51-52; need for clerical assistants, 51-52, 140-142.

Multigraded plan: extent of use by principals, 64-65.

Music, Instrumental: availability of resource personnel for, 77; principals' appraisal of, in elementary schools, 112-114.

National Education Association: participation of Research Division of, in surveys of the principalship, 4; proportion of principals reporting membership in, 35-37. See Department of Elementary School Principals.

News media: value of news submitted to, in school interpretation, 98; value of school newspaper sent to parents, 98-100.

Nongraded organization: levels at which used most frequently, 65; evaluation of, by users, 101-103; extent of use by principals, 64-65.

Occupational goals of principals: central office supervisor, 17-18; college or university teaching, 17; elementary school administration, 16-17; elementary school teaching, 17; secondary education, 17; superintendency, 17-18; willingness to serve as principal again, 15-16.

Offices: adequacy of equipment and space of, 69-70; proportion of principals lacking, 70; trends in, 70, 140-142.

Outside earnings. See Economic status.

Parents: changing conditions in homes, 150-151; cooperative planning with, 151; principals' evaluation of conferences of, held at school, 99; principals' evaluation of school visits by, 99; public relations value of working with organizations of, 99. See Community; Interpretation of schools; and Laymen.

Personnel resources: assistant principals, 72-73; lack of, 142-143; school clerks, 70-72; specialists available, 73-77.

Physically handicapped, Programs for: evaluation by users, 120; extent of use, 120-121; federal support of, 120.

Preschool programs: evaluation by users, 117; extent of use, 116-117; prekindergartens reported in schools, 64.

Principals, Supervising: academic degrees of, 23-25; age of, 10-11; annual term of employment, 38-39; assistant principals under, 72-73; blocks to ideal use of time, 51-52, 147; classroom teachers supervised, 67-68; college preparation of, 23-27; community activities of, 92-96; educational experience of, 19-23; effective supervisory techniques of, 84-86; factors making for success, 28-29; final occupational goals of, 16-18; general status in school system, 53-55; grades supervised, 64; graduate majors, 26-27; ideal time distribution of, 51, 146; marital status of, 12; membership in lay organizations, 92-96; membership in professional associations, 34-37; number of schools supervised, 62-63; number of teachers supervised, 67-68; office facilities of, 69-70; position prior to first appointment, 12-13; reason for becoming, 14-15; salaries paid to, in 1966-67, 128-130; school clerks of, 71-72; sex of, 11; size of schools under, 66-67; sources of innovations, 86-88; specialized help available to, 73-77; time given to major functions, 44-51; total hours at school, 40-41; total time given to school-related activities, 41-43; undergraduate majors of, 25-26; years as classroom teacher, 20-21; years as principal, 21-22; years in educational work, 19-20; why became a principal, 14-15; willingness to be a, again, 15-16. See Administration; Economic status; Supervision; and other major headings.

Principals, Teaching: academic degrees of, 23-25; additional earnings of, 131-132; age of, 10-11; annual term of employment, 38-39; blocks to ideal use of time, 51-52; classroom teachers supervised by, 67-68; community activities of, 92-96; effective supervisory techniques of, 84-86; factors making for success, 28-29; general role in school system, 53-55; grades supervised, 64; ideal time distribution for, 51, 146; marital status of, 12; membership in lay organizations, 92-96; membership in professional associations, 34-37; occupational goals of, 16-18; office facilities, 69-70; personnel resources of, 71-77; position prior to first appointment, 12-13; salaries paid to, in 1966-67, 128-130; school clerks of, 71-72; school enrollment

supervised, 66-67; sex of, 11; time distribution, 44-51; total hours at school, 40-41; total hours in school-related activities, 41-43; types of school organization under, 64; undergraduate majors of, 25-26; years in classroom, 20-21; years in educational work, 19-20; years in principalship, 21-22; why became a principal, 14-15; willingness to be, again, 15-16. See Administration; Supervision; and other major headings.

Professional associations. See Associations.

Professional growth. See In-service education.

Professional preparation: academic degrees earned, 23-24; courses recommended for beginning principals, 36-37; evaluation of college instructional methods, 27-28; field of graduate study, 26-27; undergraduate major interests, 25-26. See In-service education.

Programed learning: evaluation of, 108-110; extent of use by principals, 109; grades where used, 108-109.

Public relations. See Community: Interpretation of schools; and Laymen.

Pupils: placement shared with classroom teachers and others, 84; principal's role in placement, 83-84; type of student body, 91-92.

Rating of teachers: frequency of rating, 58-59; principal's responsibility for, 57-60; types of rating used, 58-59.

Reading clinic: evaluation of, 126; extent used in schools, 126; federal support of, 126.

Reading, Professional. See In-service education.

Recreation programs: evaluation of after-school type, 121; extent of use, 121-122; federal support of, 121.

Remedial programs, Summer: evaluation by users, 124; extent of use, 124-125; federal support of, 124.

Research: as a college instructional method, 27-28; as a method in supervision, 84-86; as factor in success, 28-29; estimates of sample variation in the 1968 survey, 157-161; graduate college study of principals, 26-27; in professional growth, 30-32; sample selection and response in 1968 survey, 157.

Resources, Personnel. See Assistant principals; Clerks; and Personnel resources.

Salaries: basis of salary schedules, 135-137; compared with salaries of secondary school

principals, 134-135; general recommendations of DESP for, 137; of supervising principals, 128-130; of teaching principals, 128-130; of total sample, 128-129; ratio to scheduled classroom teachers' salaries, 134-135; trends in, 133-134. See Economic status.

Salary schedules: basis of salary schedules reported by Research Division, 135-138; extent of single salary schedules in urban school systems, 136; recommendations of the Department of Elementary School Principals, 137. See Salaries.

School system: committees of, in selecting instructional materials, 80-82; general administrative status of the principal in, 53-55; policy development and the principal, 55-56.

Self-contained classroom; percent of principals using, 65-66.

Sex: proportion of men and women principals, 11; reasons for trend in proportion, 11-12; trend in proportion, 11.

Supervising principals. See Principals, Supervising.

Supervision: actual time given to, 46-48; approach to using new ideas, 88-89, 144; determining curriculum, 48-49; determining methods of instruction, 82-83; effective methods of, 84-86, 144; group emphasis, 144; ideal time allotment to, 51; pupil placement, 83-84; selection of instructional materials, 80-82; sources of new ideas and innovations, 86-88, 144.

Teacher rating. See Rating of teachers.

Teachers, Classroom: as source of many principals, 12-13; cooperation in supervisory activities, 79-89; future relationships under professional negotiation agreements, 151-153; in the evolution of the principalship, 5; number in typical schools, 67-68; participation in decision-making, 79-86; salaries of, related to principals' salaries, 134-136.

Teaching principals. See Principals, Teaching.

Team teaching: evaluation of, 105; extent of use by principals, 105-106; grade levels of use, 105.

Television instruction: evaluation of, 107; extent of use by principals 107-108; grades where used, 107.

Time allotments to major duties. See Principals, Supervising and Principals, Teaching.

Title, Official: among respondents, 9-10.

Types of schools. See Grade organization.

Vertical organization: types of plans used, 64-65.

Women principals: age of, 10-11; educational experience of, 19-23; position prior to first principalship, 12-13; possibility of larger proportion in future, 11-12; proportion of in supervisory principalship, 11, 140; reasons for becoming principals, 14-15; willingness to become a principal again, 15-16. See Principals, Teaching; Principals, Supervising; and Salaries.

Work time: actual allotment to major functions, 44-51, 145-147; comparison with workweek of classroom teachers, 146; hours given per typical workweek to duties at school, 40-41; hours given to school-related activities, 41-43; impediments to an ideal allotment of time, 51-52, 145-147.

Work year: time available for summer activities, 39-40; total length of school year, 38-39.

Workshops: as college instructional method, 27-28; value in in-service education, 30-32.